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ABSTRACT

Fourteen conference papers on classroom techniques for second language teaching are presented, including: "Cooperative Learning at the Post-Secondary Level in Japan" (Steve McGuire, Patricia Thornton, David Kluge); "Shared Inquiry Fosters Critical Thinking Skills in EFL Students" (Carol Browning, Jerold Halvorsen, Denise Ahlquist); "Story Grammar: A Reading and Discussion Strategy" (Gregory Strong); "The Use of Japanese Literature in Reading Classes" (Sachiko Ikeda); "FL Reading and Multi-Media: Psycholinguistic Views" (Syuhei Kadota, Masao Tada, Yuko Shimizu, Shinji Kimura); "Vocabulary Building with Student-Selected Words" (Robin Nagano); "An Analysis of Particle Usage Ga-O Conversion" (in Japanese) (Takako Ishida); "Creating a Writing Environment for Real Beginners" (Joyce Roth); "Preparing Students To Write in Their Disciplines" (Thomas Orr); "Writing and Peer Feedback Tasks" (Guy Kellogg, L. Scott Rogstad); "Conversation Strategies, Timed Practice, and Noticing in Large Oral Communication Classes" (Tom Kenny); "Amaterasu and the Power of Dance in the Classroom" (David Bell); "The Process of Revising Tests and Creating Parallel Forms" (Alan Hunt, David Beglar); and "Continuous Assessment Facilitated by CAI" (Colin Painter). Individual papers contain references. (MSE)

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Section Three
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Cooperative Learning at the Post-Secondary Level in Japan

Steve McGuire
Nagoya University of Arts

Patricia Thornton
Kinjo Gakuin University

David Kluge
Kinjo Gakuin University

Introduction

Teachers in Japan are often faced with what seem to be insurmountable obstacles: large classes which meet relatively infrequently and students with low motivation. One solution to these challenges is to have students work in groups, but even then it's difficult to keep students in large classes talking and on task. In addition, keeping track of students' progress can be difficult in both small and large classes. This paper will present cooperative learning as an approach which can help solve some of these difficulties. Part 1 will be an introduction to the fundamentals of cooperative learning, including common misconceptions, the key elements of a cooperative lesson, examples of five different models, and a brief overview of the research in support of cooperative learning. Part 2 will be selections from a transcript of the roundtable discussion held at the JALT96 conference in Hiroshima. A reading list by topic area is provided in the Appendix.

Part 1: Fundamentals of Cooperative Learning

A Definition of Cooperative Learning: What It Is and Isn't

Before we define cooperative learning and discuss its benefits, we have presented some of the more common misconceptions regarding it in Table 1.

Key Elements

Many of the misconceptions listed above exist because people often mistakenly equate cooperative learning with a more general idea of group work. Cooperative learning is a form of group work, but it goes beyond just putting students in groups and telling them to work together. A properly structured cooperative lesson looks much like a well-prepared traditional lesson: it has clearly defined roles for the students and clearly defined goals so students know what and how they're supposed to learn. There are nine key elements of a cooperative lesson.

1. Positive Interdependence. This is structuring group work so that in order for a group to succeed, all members in the group must meet their individual goals. There are several ways to encourage positive interdependence:
   - *Positive Goal Interdependence*: A group might turn in a single paper or report, but all students must achieve their individual goals, e.g., increase their individual scores by 5%.
   - *Positive Resource Interdependence*: A group might share one pencil and one piece of paper per group.
   - *Positive Reward Interdependence*: Every group member gets 5 bonus points if all group members improve 5%.
   - *Identity Interdependence*: Students choose a group name, flag, or sign.
   - *Positive Role Interdependence*: A group

Misconceptions	Actuality
"I've used cooperative learning and it doesn't work."	Merely putting students into groups and telling them to work together is not cooperative learning--there are several elements which must be present.
"I want students to learn to think for themselves."	Lessons are structured so each student must participate and is held accountable for learning the material.
"Gifted students end up doing all the work while lazy students get a free ride. The slower students will hold them back."	All students process material much more if they have to teach it. Individual goals can be set so all succeed.
"Cooperative learning is just an excuse for the teacher to be lazy."	The teacher chooses the material and the activity to teach it, sets goals, and structures the activity cooperatively.
"It's a competitive world and students must learn to compete in it."	Cooperative learning is used in conjunction with individualistic and competitive goal structures.
"Cooperative learning is a fad."	Cooperative learning has been statistically shown to enhance learning, improve comprehension and increase retention. Research on cooperative learning dates back to Morton Deutsch in the 1940s.

Table 1: Common misconceptions about cooperative learning.

may have a reader, writer, encourager, checker, praiser.

- *Positive Outside Enemy Interdependence*: Group competition, or competition against a group's earlier score.

2. Team Formation. Research shows that heterogeneously grouped teams show more benefits than homogeneously formed teams (Dishon and O'Leary, 1984). Factors such as age, gender, race, nationality, and language proficiency could be considered in group formation. Cooperative groups usually consist of 2-4 members.

3. Accountability. Each individual is accountable for his or her own learning and is also accountable to the group. This means that grading takes into account individual grades and group grades (Olsen and Kagan, 1992).

4. Social Skills. Most teachers using group work assume that since the students have acquired the social skills required to work together in their native language, they don't need to be taught the same social skills in the foreign language. It is often necessary to explicitly teach the language and behavior needed to work together in English. Cooperative learning takes this into account and emphasizes the explicit teaching of social skills (Dishon and O'Leary, 1984).

5. Structures and Structuring. There are a set of ways to organize student interactions with other students and with the content (Olsen and Kagan, 1992). Each structure explains step-by-step what the teacher and students must do. These structures are generic, content-free procedures that can be used for any subject at any age or proficiency level.

6. Distributed Leadership. Dishon and O'Leary (1984) and other practitioners believe that all group members should have a turn as group leader.

7. Group Autonomy. The teacher should allow the students to solve their problems unaided so that each individual learns to rely on the members of the group to explain or to work out ambiguities together; the teacher steps in only as a last resort.

8. Group Processing. At the end of an activity or unit, the group should reflect on how it has performed by reviewing the skills that it practiced, what it did well, and what needs to be worked on next time. Teachers may provide a handout to track use of the skills.

9. Face to Face Promotive Interaction. For cooperative learning to be effective, the members of the group have to be in very close physical proximity, face to face.

Models of Cooperative Learning

The nine elements listed above are found in all models of cooperative learning in varying forms and degrees. The five most common models are The Structural Approach (Kagan, 1989), Group Investigation (Sharan & Sharan, 1992), Student Team Investigation (Aronson, 1978; Slavin, 1990), and Learning Together (Johnson, Johnson, & Johnson Holubec, 1991).

The Structural Approach

The Structural Approach is based on the use of various distinct sequences of classroom behaviors, called structures (Kagan, 1989). A structure is not an activity. Rather, it is a framework within which an activity is done. Olsen and Kagan (1992) suggest that activities cannot often be reused meaningfully many times, but structures can be used over and over again with different curriculum materials and throughout a syllabus. Two examples of structures, Talking Tokens and Roundtable, are described below. For a more complete list see Olsen and Kagan (1992) or Kagan (1989).

Talking Tokens. Olsen and Kagan (1992) label this structure as a "communication builder." Each student must "spend" a token to speak. To talk, the student places a token in the center of the table. The student cannot talk again until all tokens are in the center of the table. Tokens are then retrieved and the process begins again.

Roundtable. Each group has one piece of paper and one pen. One student writes a contribution and passes the paper and pen to the student on the left. Roundtable can be used to introduce a new topic or theme or as a review and practice activity.

Group Investigation

Group Investigation was developed by Yael and Shlomo Sharan and is nicely summarized in Sharan (1994). It incorporates four basic features: investigation, interaction, interpretation, and intrinsic motivation.

1. Investigation. The classroom becomes an "inquiring community," and each student is an investigator who coordinates his or her inquiry into the class' common research project which is a challenging, multifaceted problem presented by the teacher.
2. Interaction. Since the class must research a topic together, students have ample opportunities for interaction, which means they must learn to work as a team and discuss topics.
3. Interpretation. Students integrate information from a variety of sources and must then exchange information and ideas and integrate what they have learned with what their research partners share from their own investigations.
4. Intrinsic Motivation. Since students have control of their own learning, are actively involved in the project following guidelines which they set themselves, and must share what they have learned with others, there is a high level of motivation to learn.

Student Team Investigation

This model of cooperative learning was developed by Aronson and Slavin at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, Maryland. Examples are the various kinds of jigsaw activities, and procedures to structure interdependence.

Jigsaw I	Step 1. Each student individually becomes an expert on a topic. Step 2. Students share their information with the small group.
Jigsaw II	The same as Jigsaw I, but all members have the same information. Each person is an expert on a certain task that has to be done with the information.
Team Jigsaw	Step 1. Each person belongs to a "home team." Step 2. Each person in the team is assigned a number. Step 3. Each number goes to a "mastery team" to master some information or task. Step 4. Each student returns to home team to share information.

Curriculum Packages

Curriculum Packages are sets of cooperative learning material that are usually specific to a subject and age level. Two commercially published examples are:

Comprehensive Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC). Developed by Slavin, Leavey, and Madden (1986), CIRC is a program which combines cooperative learning procedures with specific basal reading programs.

Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI). Developed by Slavin et al. (1986), TAI is a program which uses cooperative learning procedures to teach mathematics.

Learning Together

This approach was developed by David and Roger Johnson. Unlike the other more structured approaches to cooperative learning above, the Learning Together approach emphasizes the teaching and practicing of the social skills required to work together. Even though Japanese culture stresses group harmony, students need to learn how to work together successfully in a foreign language. Teachers learn to evaluate material to be taught, choose the type of activity appropriate to help students learn that material, and structure the activity so that all five of the elements that the Johnsons regard as necessary for a lesson to be cooperative (positive interdependence, individual accountability, group processing, social skills, and face-to-face promotive interaction) are incorporated.

Does Cooperative Learning Work?

In the past 20 years, there have been numerous studies comparing more traditional methods of teaching, which are competitive or individualistic, with cooperative learning. Johnson and Johnson (1989) did a meta-analysis of 352 of these studies and showed that achievement was higher for students engaged in cooperative learning. Other researchers have shown that students more frequently use high-level reasoning strategies (Spurlin, Dansereau, Larson, & Brooks, 1984; Larson et al., 1985) and have higher scores on subsequent tests taken individually (Lambiotte et al., 1987). Studies have also been conducted to find out about students' satisfaction and self-esteem in the different environments. Cooperative learning has been shown to increase students' liking for other students (Cooper, Johnson, Johnson, & Wilderson, 1980), their own self-esteem (Slavin, 1983), their ability to be self-directed (Johnson, Johnson, Johnson, & Anderson, 1976), and their liking for the class in general (Kulik & Kulik, 1979).

In general, the studies in language classes have found that discussion groups and teams were better than whole class instruction for developing integrative and discrete language skills (Bejarano, 1987) and that students take more turns in cooperative learning groups compared to a teacher-centered class, thus gaining more practice in language production (Deen, 1991).

Part II: Roundtable Discussion

The following discussion was part of the roundtable presented at JALT96. After hearing an overview of cooperative learning, participants were invited to ask questions of the panelists: Steve McGuire, Patricia Thornton (Tricia), and David Kluge. Limited space has made it necessary to choose representative questions from the discussion period. Verbatim accounts have been used below in order to retain the oral quality of the discussion.

Question: I have a question about accountability. If one student's paper is used for a whole group's grade and that student does badly, doesn't that create an atmosphere for bullying or other negative consequences?

Steve: In cooperative learning, students know what to expect. They have the chance to practice. They can coach each other and make sure that everyone in the group understands. There's motivation for students to help each other succeed. Also that score wouldn't be the grade for the entire year's class. It is just one activity of many the students will do.

David: There are several ways to hold a group, and individuals in a group, accountable. One is to take each individual's score plus the group's average. Another is to take one student's paper within the group as the group's score. And still another is to take

each student's score plus the lowest person's score in the group. The lowest scoring student will, next time, work harder to achieve a higher score.

Question: *What do you do with a student nobody wants to include in their group?*
Tricia: Doing more team-building activities within the group is sometimes effective and trying to show the special strengths of the student who is unpopular. Or, as the teacher, I might design an activity that would highlight that student's abilities to help the other students appreciate them.

Question: *Do you usually have volunteer or assigned groups?*
Tricia: I usually assign groups because I want to build in as much heterogeneity as possible.
David: They can also be assigned randomly, using playing cards so that all hearts are in one group, all 4s are in one group, etc.

Question: What do you do when students are absent from long-term groups?
Steve: One thing I've done is wait for 2 or 3 weeks into a semester to assign groups. By about 3 weeks I have a good feeling for attendance. I grouped students so that if I had 4 students, at least 3 of them were in class most of the time. There is usually 75% or 50% there every week. I tried to balance it so I would have 3 members present every week.
Tricia: If the task is structured, and sometimes the tasks I develop are more structured than at other times, I have found that when every person has a particular role, or a particular task within a larger task, then it tends to be more successful.

Question: *What about the problem of keeping people in the target language? Is there a mechanism for doing that in cooperative learning or do you find that they automatically stay more in English?*
David: I think a lot of times they fall into the native language, the L1, because they don't have the language to do the task in the L2. So when you're talking about the task social skills, it's important to give them the language they need to do that task as well as the team-building social skills.

Question: Could you describe a little bit about what you do at the beginning of the semester when the students are *first being introduced to cooperative learning? How do you teach the processing language or the language needed for working in groups?*
Tricia: Rather than give students a lot of information at one time, I usually build as the semester goes on. So at the beginning I may take one week to talk about what cooperative learning is or to explain the groups. I will teach a little bit of the functional language that will be needed. Then every week I will add new phrases or new information.
Steve: The Johnsons recommend making T-charts. The T-charts have two columns which are used to describe what a social skill looks like and what it sounds like. For example "What does attentiveness look like?" might include nodding heads, eyes open, etc. "What does it sound like?" would include phrases the students might use to show they are listening such as "Um" or "Uh-huh" or "That's interesting," etc.

Question: Could you give some descriptions of some specific tasks that you've done?
Tricia: I'll start with reading. I had a class of 58 first-year junior college students who were reading American short stories. My goal for the class was that students would not only read and comprehend, but they would also be able to interact with each other and talk about the literature, especially the universal themes. So I used cooperative groups about every other week. One of my activities was designed to help students learn how to justify their opinions using specific text citations. Cooperative groups were given one sheet of paper with character names from 2 or 3 different stories we had read. As a group they had to first decide on a characteristic (one adjective) that described each character. Then each student in the group had to find a supportive statement in the text and write it on the piece of paper. This meant that one group had one piece of paper to which all students were contributing.
David: I used cooperative learning two weeks ago in my speaking class. I chose team jigsaw. We were doing a unit in the textbook about planning, so we planned a

Halloween party. I had them in home groups of 4 members. They had to decide what kind of party (costume, dance, etc.), the place to have it, and the entertainment. Each member had a number 1, 2, 3, or 4. After the home groups finished, new groups were formed with all 1's, all 2's, etc. Each person shared what their group decided with the new group. That new group had to come up with a composite of all the best ideas. Then, members went back to their home groups to share the composites. Finally, the whole class decided on the best plan.

Steve: Activities with just one partner are also possible. "Turn to your partner and ask them for 5 kinds of sports, or sports they like, or sports they can do." I like that activity because it's easy and the outcome is obvious to the students: "Wow, I thought of 5 things."

David: In writing I've had a roundtable where groups of 4 students will brainstorm on topics for writing. There's one paper and one person writes, passes it to the next student, and it just goes around and around for 5 minutes.

Tricia: I've also used jigsaw in writing classes. In the U.S. in a small ESL class, I wanted students to do peer editing. That's often difficult for ESL students. And so, in this class, I made groups of 2 or 3 students who were experts for a particular kind of editing. For example, one group was punctuation. Another group was spelling. One group looked for main ideas in paragraphs. I worked with each group to learn the rules or ideas for their area of expertise. Every group read everyone's paper at some point in the writing process. During the year the expert groups changed so that within a whole year every student would be an expert in most of the tasks.

Conclusion

Cooperative groups can be a very effective way to help students have more opportunities to use language for real communication. Cooperative learning is more than just putting students in groups. It involves carefully structuring activities so that all students are required to participate in order for the group to be successful. Students are learning both task specific language and the social language and skills needed to do a task. Students are actively reflecting on their group performances and setting goals to improve.

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Appendix

Cooperative learning in college and university classes:

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Cooperative learning in ESL or FL settings and in countries other than the U.S.:

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Shared Inquiry Fosters Critical Thinking Skills in EFL Students

Carol Browning
Hokkai Gakuen University

Jerold Halvorsen
Kokugakuin Junior College

Denise Ahlquist
The Great Books Foundation

"Highly interactive" is the key phrase that describes the language learning environments established in English classes that feature the *shared inquiry* method of reading and discussing outstanding world literature. Acceptance of the idea that students develop communicative competence "through communication, not through conscious structure practice" (Savignon, 1983, p. 65) has led foreign language educators to look for instructional strategies that will help create such settings. By including *shared inquiry* in the curriculum—posing genuine interpretive and evaluative questions about a rich work of literature and focusing on developing independent student responses—teachers can invite students to engage in authentic communication in a second language. With sustained practice, students learn to value their own questions, slowly acquire the confidence to express their own ideas, and are motivated to do their best when working collaboratively to solve real problems that interest them (Schifini, 1993). As reading for meaning and critical thinking skills are so fundamental to lifelong learning, students gain, not only from intensive practice using English, but from interactions that cultivate the habits of reflection and independent thought that make true cross-cultural communication possible.

Inquiry-based learning approaches in general rely on a constructivist model and reorient classroom activities around genuine questions from both teachers and students. The acquisition of competence in a foreign language can be enhanced through using such questions to develop the critical thinking skills that are the foundation of active learning. Krashen, for example, posits that mastery of facts and concepts is the result of problem solving (1982). *Shared inquiry*—a method of reading and discussing high quality literature developed by the Great Books Foundation, an

American non-profit educational organization—represents an effective way to develop these skills. As an alternative pedagogical approach to teaching English language and literature, *shared inquiry* helps fulfill Japanese Ministry of Education (Monbusho) guidelines, especially for the oral components of high school English. (For a more complete discussion of these points see Browning & Halvorsen, 1995, p. 23; Browning & Halvorsen, 1996, pp. 40-41; and Browning, Halvorsen, and Ahlquist, 1996, p. 220. For a discussion of the Ministry of Education guidelines, see Carter, Goold, & Madeley 1993; Goold, Madeley & Carter, 1993; Goold, Carter & Madeley, 1994.)

The *shared inquiry* approach to reading and discussion has proven effective with a wide range of Japanese students, including low-intermediate learners in a rural junior college, senior English majors in a private women's college, and adult NHK center learners who have previously used English while traveling or living abroad. Students in all these settings are guided in an exploration of the meaning of a complex work of literature by a teacher/discussion leader who is genuinely interested in finding out what they think about what they are reading. Selections as brief as "April Rain," a nine-line poem by Langston Hughes, or Aesop's short fable "Lion and Mouse" can be used with a group of upper-level beginners. Intermediate classes can discuss folk and fairy tales like "Jack and the Beanstalk," "The Ugly Duckling," the Ethiopian tale "Fire on the Mountain," or short fables like Tolstoy's "Two Brothers." Advanced classes might read a contemporary short story such as "Gaston" by William Saroyan or chapters from Kenneth Grahame's classic work, *The Wind and the Willows*. Each of these selections will support in-depth exploration of perennial human problems, while offering valuable opportunities for Japanese students to interact with literature from different cultures. [Note: the above selections are available from the Great Books Foundation; bibliographic references are included in the reference section.]

Providing the right guidance and support throughout the reading process is essential if the goal is to have L2 learners develop and express their own interpretations of what they have read. No matter what literature is chosen, teachers should first use a brief pre-reading activity to have students form connections between their own lives and some of the themes or issues they will encounter in the literature, especially if the text is from another culture or time period. The story must then be read several times—aloud by the teacher, aloud or silently by individuals or groups of students—with special care taken to encourage students to pose their own questions about what they have read. Students may be able to answer some of these questions immediately by pooling their knowledge or consulting dictionaries. Other questions may require outside research or further discussion. Note-taking activities that encourage divergent reader response and vocabulary work that focuses on multiple-meaning words in context also lay the groundwork for the interpretations that students are already beginning to develop. Working with partners and in small groups throughout these stages of preparation for discussion is motivating for students, brings variety to long class periods, and helps ensure that student interaction is collaborative.

Once students are familiar with the story, the teacher more fully takes on the role of inquirer in a 60-90 minute *shared inquiry* discussion. Discussion always focuses on a genuine problem of meaning in the work, a question that the leader believes has more than one answer in the text. By listening carefully and asking follow-up questions about students' responses, the leader encourages each member of the class to consider several possible solutions to the problem, test these against evidence in the text, and come to his or her own interpretation of what has been read. Asking students to prepare a written response to the question as homework before the discussion session is a good confidence-builder and ensures greater participation by all members of the class. If both an individual answer and "another answer you heard" are also written down after discussion, teachers can collect these as a way of monitoring listening abilities and participation, even by shyer students in large classes where everyone may not get a chance to speak every time.

One advantage of using this method of learning for teaching English to Japanese students is that the teacher starts the interaction at the students' level of ability and understanding. By exploring students' reactions to some of the issues raised before the reading, their questions and responses during reading, and their answers to interpretive questions during discussion, teachers can help students go one step further in their understanding. No matter what the participants' level of English, the leader guides discussions by listening carefully and asking only questions, so that students' words and thoughts are at the center of class activities. To articulate difficult concepts, students will occasionally need to express the idea first in Japanese and then work with classmates to translate it into English. This focus on their own ideas is highly motivating for students, however, since even beginning language learners have thoughts and opinions about the problems raised by outstanding literature. Highly favorable student evaluations comment that "In this class, we have to start thinking in English, so we work harder, but we get more out of it. . . ," and "I have never taken such a stimulating course before." For teachers, too, the emphasis on student ideas means that each class is fresh and one gets to know students in a way that otherwise rarely happens.

With various adaptations, the *shared inquiry* method of learning has been successfully used by two of the authors, in a range of settings, to teach Japanese students English as a foreign language. The most obvious arenas are conversation or oral communication classes and reading classes, but individual stories and some elements of the approach can also be employed in culture courses or for variety in more traditional language classes as well. Difficulties presented by large or lengthy classes and a wide range of language abilities can be surmounted by having students work in pairs or small groups to prepare for discussion, by using art or drama activities, and by providing supervised opportunities for multiple readings, student-to-student interaction, and individual reflection. Extending work on a story over three or more class sessions is recommended and allows for the incorporation of more direct instruction via mini-lessons on grammar, pronunciation, or culture.

Choosing appropriate high-quality literature is the first priority. The literature used for *shared inquiry* must be discussible. It must be rich enough in ideas and language to sustain in-depth exploration; it must be able to support multiple interpretations; and the problems to be explored, while they should be age-appropriate for the students, must be of interest to the teacher as well. According to Krashen (1982), a good literature program deals with topics and themes of universal and local interest that encourage students to think about basic ethical and metaphysical questions. Some poetry selections and many folk and fairy tales from around the world meet these criteria while providing foreign language learners with texts that are challenging but not overwhelming. "The Ugly Duckling," for example, engages readers with issues of identity and the impact of bullying on the individual. The Ethiopian tale "Fire on the Mountain" explores the inner discipline and social support needed to overcome external obstacles as well as what it means to be true to one's word. Such issues call forth students' best efforts at genuine communication.

Careful preparation by the teacher/discussion leader is the next step. The process of reading a work carefully several times, making notes, and writing interpretive questions familiarizes the leader with the text and prepares him or her to respond with more questions as students develop their own ideas. Working together if possible, leaders can help each other see new ways of interpreting the text that can be formulated into questions. For example, in the story "Jack and the Beanstalk," did Jack succeed mainly because of luck and magic or mainly because of his own abilities? Grouping related interpretive questions together into a basic question (luck and magic, or abilities?) and more detailed supporting questions (Why does the ogre's wife help Jack two times?) can help sustain a longer, more in-depth discussion. Once students have come to their own interpretations in discussion, the leader may want to raise evaluative issues that ask students to use their own experience to

agree or disagree with the author. Evaluative questions can lead to further discussion or form the basis of post-discussion writing. (For a detailed explanations of the leader's preparation for discussion and the distinctions between factual, interpretive, and evaluative questions, see Great Books Foundation, 1993.) Finally, planning the full sequence of activities to guide students through the reading process, as well as any distinct mini-lessons that might be done in conjunction with this story, prepares the leader to maintain a focus on students' responses during class.

The leader's planning is balanced by the spontaneity inherent in *shared inquiry* discussion. Remaining in the role of inquirer—helping students learn to help themselves rather than feeding them words and ideas—may be particularly difficult for verbal L1 Western teachers working with Japanese L2 learners. Nevertheless, once students begin to give answers to the opening question, the leader's most important task is to listen carefully and turn personal reactions into follow-up questions that will help students develop initial responses into more comprehensive interpretations. If a response is unclear, asking, "What do you mean by that?" or "Could you explain that further?" gives the student an opportunity to develop variety in expression and to clarify his or her own thoughts. If the leader understands what the student is saying, he or she should ask, "What in the story suggested that idea?" Having students return frequently to the text to cite and examine passages develops critical thinking skills and improves reading comprehension. And using questions to encourage students to listen and respond to one another's ideas and to weigh different possible interpretations is an essential part of the collaboration implied in the term *shared inquiry*. Although Japanese students rarely engage in direct disagreement, over time teachers can help students work together to provide multiple sources of evidence for an idea, see subtle variations in answers, and even gain the confidence to express opinions different from those of their classmates. None of this activity can be scripted in advance.

An open mind, patience, and realistic expectations will help teachers work toward and recognize the signs of progress in any group. Obviously, not all classes or students will develop at the same rate. And many students will read and comprehend English language texts with a higher vocabulary level than they will be able to use in oral discussion. Still, *shared inquiry* learning offers natural opportunities for ongoing assessment. Students gain confidence when they have time to write down their answers before discussion, and informally collecting and reviewing this work facilitates the tracking of student growth. Similarly, making notes on seating charts during discussion and other activities not only flags words or ideas for further exploration, it also enables the leader to record the number of times students speak. Over time, teachers will see students move from giving short simple answers, to explaining and supporting their answers with evidence, to responding directly to the ideas offered by other students.

Providing language learning experiences that require this level of critical thinking and verbal interaction—between students and rich texts from different cultures, between teachers and students, and among students themselves—is a challenging but rewarding educational experience. For foreign language teachers looking for ways to engage students in authentic communication activities and prepare them to participate with confidence in a diverse global society, the *shared inquiry* method offers possibilities for developing students' reading, thinking, and communication skills through discussion of outstanding literature in ways that respect cultural and individual differences while helping us all to cross new borders.

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Story Grammar: A Reading and Discussion Strategy

Gregory Strong
Aoyma Gakuin University

Reading fiction is more difficult for EFL students than reading expository writing. Primarily, this is because there is greater potential complexity in fiction in the areas of organization and grammatical structure (Gadjusek, 1988). Accordingly, there is little benefit in the use of reader strategies for non-fiction of scanning for details, skimming paragraphs to find the main idea and using the contextual clues supplied by transitional phrases, and the use of background knowledge about a subject, or knowledge of distinct genres such as comparison and contrast passages, persuasive writing, and newspaper articles.

However, a reading strategy which has emerged for use with fiction is story grammar. The idea of a story grammar is derived from work in cognitive psychology and anthropology which suggests that stories are told using a common grammar of the elements of character, conflict, incidents, and the resolution of a conflict. In summarizing the research studies of its use in L1, Dimino, Taylor and Gersten (1995) note its effectiveness with weak readers.

Story grammar can also provide a focus for the discussion of a story in a student-led group. Students can read and then discuss

stories with the goal of understanding how the story grammar terms are used.

The terms are general enough to be applied to most stories and can provide students with a common language for discussion. In addition, there is considerable research support for this type of task-based conversation as a method of language learning (Ellis, 1982; Long, 1981).

A Story Grammar Strategy

A variety of story grammars have been proposed. The following one is based on literary terms adapted from Beckson and Ganz (1987). To begin with, the teacher needs to explain the strategy and model its use. The students need to learn the terms thoroughly before they can begin to practise using it and successfully apply it. This means learning the definitions of the terms and the differences between them (See Fig. 1).

The terms can be taught through numerous types of classroom activities using a combination of language skills and information gap activities where students need to communicate information to each other. Some literary terms are more easily taught than others. For example, a teacher might use a scene from a video to establish the terms of "setting." By using a video, everyone will have had the same visual experience and it is easier to talk about it and review it.

There are many possibilities. For example, a teacher might use a scene from a video such as *The Last Emperor* (Thomas, Bertolucci, 1987) to show a setting. This video deals with the story of Pu Yi, the last emperor of the Qing Dynasty in China. Students could be shown the elaborate ceremony in the Forbidden City where the three-year old Pu Yi is proclaimed emperor of China, or a later scene showing a crowd of young Communists carrying red banners during the Cultural Revolution and then asked the time and location of the scene. A similar type of approach using video might help explain the term "conflict."

Complex literary terms are another matter. A teacher might introduce "point of view" in class through a jigsaw reading where the teacher divides the students into different groups and gives each group a different passage or "point of view.") See Fig. 2 Once the groups have correctly identified their respective passages, the teacher breaks these groups into new ones where each member has a different passage. The members of these new groups try to guess one another's "point of view."

After all the groups have finished, they work together in writing from the"point of view" suggested by a character in a scene

1. Setting: the time and location of a story, or novel
2. Point of a story is told from one point of view:
   a) first person; sympathetic, unreliable,
   b) third person; factual, little insight into characters' minds and emotions
   c) omniscient, insight into the minds and emotions of many characters
3. Conflict: a character is in conflict with himself, or herself, or with someone else:
   a) man or woman versus man or woman
   b) man or woman versus himself or herself
   c) man or woman versus his or her environment
4. Symbol: a thing which stands for another thing, a person, or idea
5. Irony: whenever something happens in a story that is unexpected and yet appropriate
6. Theme: the main idea, a moral or a lesson

Figure 1 Literary Terms

I. I could hardly believe it! There was ice ahead of my car. I stepped on the brake to avoid hitting it. But it was too late — My car drove over the ice and skidded off the road. My life passed before me. What a waste! To end it all so miserably this way. There was a crash and then everything went black.

II. The white Toyota sedan hit the ice on the road and spun out of control. It skidded off the road and hit a fence. It stopped there. The engine was smoking and there was no sign of life.

III. The man driving the white Toyota sedan hit the ice before he could even see it. The car went into a skid the man couldn't control. To his horror, his vehicle left the road and crashed into a fence. It lay there and the engine was smoking.

Figure 2 Points of View

from a video. The previousactivity provides the groups with some models for their writing. In terms of avideo, the wedding scene in *The Father of the Bride* (Gallin, S., Meyers, N.,Burns, C., Rosenman, H. & Shyer, C., 1991) might be useful here. Theteacher assigns a different "point of view" to each group in the class as well asasking some groups to write first person narratives from the perspective ofdifferent characters such as the bride, her father, and the groom. After thegroups have finished their narratives, the teacher then breaks these groups up and the students return to their initial groups.

Each student reads the "point of view" created in his previous group. The other members of the group attempt to guess it, and if it is a first-person narrative, to determine which character has the perspective. Alternately,instead of using a video, the teacher could show the students a photograph or drawing where the subjects in it are used to illustrate the term "point ofview."

Next, descriptive writing helps students to better understandsymbols. The teacher brings in some objects and then leads the class inbrainstorming the various ways the objects could be categorized. Then theteacher asks each student to choose one object and to write a description of howthe object could symbolize an idea, a quality, or a feeling. Afterward, in groups, students interpret their symbols to each other: for example, a pen couldrepresent an idea, a message, literature, or even a maxim like "the pen ismightier than the sword"; a padlock could represent a secret; a crime, the mysteriousunconscious, or deductive logic.

Teaching students a more complex term such as irony might involve them in brainstorming and writing ironic twists. The teacher gives the series ofprompts (a), (b), (c) on a handout or on the blackboard. The students suggest the ironic twists to the prompts. (see Fig. 3)

The second phase of teaching the Story Grammar strategy begins. The next step is to guide the students through a use of the strategy with otherexamples. In addition, the teacher also comments on student use of the strategyand students compare their

1. After waiting all morning to eat his lunch, he opened it and...
   ex. an alligator jumped out and ate him.
2. The thief tried to steal the old lady's purse, but...
   ex. she was a karate master, and she beat him up.
3. Poor Alex studied all night for his Chemistry test, only...
   ex. the test the next day was in Mathematics.

Figure 3 Prompts for Ironic Twists

efforts with one another (Anthony & Raphael, 1989;Shih, 1992).

The teacher prepares for the second phase, the guided practice, bychoosing a very short story which can be read quickly in class. The goal of theactivity is not in reading details and a rich narrative so much as in applying thestory grammar, in this case, one based on literary terms. Collie and Slater (1987) cite a very compact surrealist tale by Alasdair Gray which would be effective:

In *The Star*' a young boy sees a 'star' drop from the sky into the backyard of his house. He finds it and treasures it, secretly. When he takes it to school, however, he is caught looking at it by his teacher. Rather than relinquish it, he swallows it and becomes a star, too. (p.201).

The teacher asks the students to read the story, and then label the parts of the story where the literary terms appear and note the reason for their opihions. The students then check their work in pairs to see how effectively they were able to analyze the story. Next, the teacher puts the students into small groups to discuss their choices further. During this time, the students will be altering their ideas through contact with other students and enlarging their understanding of both the terms and the story. At this point, the teacher asks the different groups in the class to report on their findings and to offer an explanation for their choices.

More explanation of the strategy will be necessary. For one thing, if in discussing the setting of *The Star*, none of the students mention how the appearance of dates, and names, or in this case, references to a contemporary lifestyle indicate setting, then the teacher should do so. The boy in the story has a backyard to his house, and he attends school, which likely places him in a developed country in the 20th century.

In the same way, a consideration of a few words or phrases in the text can be used to explain each of the literary terms. When students discuss more abstract literary terms such as "symbol," "irony," or "theme," then the teacher should make it clear that multiple explanations are possible, provided that students explain their reasoning and support it through reference to the story. As a symbol, the "star" in Alasdair's story might represent "hope" or "spiritual" attainment. After all, it is in the sky and it is bright enough to be seen by the boy. But one could also argue that the star represents "radioactivity" or "evil" and in the first case, this is how the boy turns into a "star" himself; he becomes "radioactive." In the case of "evil," the argument could be made that the star represents dishonesty and evasion, a fall from a state of grace whereby in concealing the star from his teacher, the boy is in effect telling a lie, and therefore becoming evil himself.

These possible explanations of the theme should all be listed upon the blackboard and given serious discussion in the class to indicate to the students that different explanations are acceptable, even admirable.

At this point, the teacher has to assess how many more stories would be necessary for the students to attempt as guided practice before they could use the story grammar strategy independently, and furthermore which kinds of genres of stories, for example, realistic ones, fables, science fiction, and so on might be introduced in the class.

Once the students in the class understand all the literary terms and can apply them reasonably effectively to stories, they are ready for independent study in small groups. Teaching the students the literary terms and then providing them with guided practice is best done over a series of classes on literary terms. In the first class, the teacher should explain the literary terms to the students and demonstrate their use. The students' homework should be to review the terms, perhaps for a short matching quiz in the following class to ensure that students can at least distinguish between terms. Subsequent classwork should involve guided practice and then independent work and self-evaluation.

After the students understand the strategy, the teacher might use it as the basis for students doing oral book reports on novels. The story grammar terms lend themselves well to summarizing material and would help students explain their books to one another. If the class is reading the same stories or novel, then the teacher could set up reading study groups. On a rotating basis, each student could be required to

serve as a discussion leader with the responsibility of encouraging all his or her group members to participate in the discussion.

These small groups are also effective in teaching other language skills besides reading. Tasks in which students in a group discussion have unique information to contribute are tasks that encourage participation and thus facilitate second language acquisition (Long, 1981; Nunan, 1991).

Porter (1986) found that learners produce more talk with other learners than with native-speaking partners and that learners do not learn one another's errors. In these ways, using a story grammar reading strategy aids language learning through improving reading comprehension and speaking and listening skills.

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The Use of Japanese Literature in Reading Classes

Sachiko Ikeda
Kagoshima Immaculate Heart College

Background

In reading classes, contextual knowledge has been considered very important in addition to the knowledge of the language. Reading is a very active brain process which uses both written textual information and the knowledge of the context (Silberstein, 1994; Smith, 1978). Using their knowledge of the context and language, readers look at the text and take samples to make predictions; they then check if their predictions are correct, and then confirm them (Coady, 1979). When readers predict, they can use the knowledge they already have, and that knowledge can

help comprehension (Silberstein, 1994). Therefore, the use of background knowledge can compensate for linguistic weaknesses (Coady, 1979).

We usually have some experience of being able to read faster, and understand more easily, when we read something on a topic with which we are familiar. On the other hand, when we read something unfamiliar, our reading speed naturally slows down, and sometimes we find it difficult to comprehend. For example, I know a Japanese student at a rather low English level who had studied at a university in the U.S. In a Japanese novels class she took, she had to read a number of famous works translated into English. Although she did not have time to check unfamiliar words in a dictionary, she could guess and understand them fairly well as she had read or heard of the stories while in Japan. Japanese students often have difficulty guessing the meaning of words they do not know, and want to check those words in a dictionary. Paying attention to each word not only slows down the reading speed, but can also deter comprehension as the reader reads too slowly to remember what was written before. Slow reading also impedes comprehension because it can overload visual system and short-term memory (Smith, 1978).

Aware of these research findings and experience, I began teaching an English reading course based on Japanese literature with the expectation that the familiar contexts would assist students in guessing the meaning of words and help them to understand the story. When they understand, they can be interested in the story and thus read more, and as a result, they can improve their reading skills. People can improve their reading by reading (Smith, 1978).

Course Organization

A particular work in Japanese literature translated into English was chosen for use in a one-semester class, and divided into 10 or 11 sections. Usually each section has from 10 to 15 pages depending on the length of the book, and I make about 5 study questions for each part. Different types of questions are included, so that students can practice reading skills such as skimming, scanning, predicting, summarizing, and responding personally. Students are supposed to write their answers in their notebooks of which they prepare two, alternating every week. This means that they have one week to read the assigned pages and answer the questions in one of the notebooks, and the teacher has one week to read students' answers in the other notebook. Then, in class, we have a discussion in English based on those study questions.

In each class, after returning the notebooks to students, we review the story by summarizing orally to remember the part we are going to cover in that class, and we then have the discussion. This works very well in a class of up to 15 students. It is usually helpful to divide students into pairs or small groups before starting discussion. This way, students do not usually feel nervous about speaking up in class because of the confidence and security gained while talking to their partners or group members.

When we finish the book at the end of the course, we watch a movie adapted from the story. After the movie, we discuss our understanding of the differences between the book and the movie, which can lead to quite an interesting discussion. In class, students are encouraged to use English unless it is too difficult to express their ideas, in which case we use Japanese, but this usually happens only three times at most in a semester.

In addition to the Japanese literature book used in class, students are assigned a book report. Each student chooses one book about Japan written in English, and writes a 3-page report. The book can be on anything related to Japan such as Japanese history, people, culture, customs, as well as literature. Based on the written report, they give an oral presentation in class.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Class size can be one of the important factors for this type of course. It works best with a small class of around 12; very small groups of 2 to 5 students can be boring as students tend to agree with each other quite often. When teachers have bigger reading classes of 50, or even 100, it takes too long to check the written answers. If, on the other hand, students can choose from a number of questions, get into groups according to

those questions, and report back to the class, it could be possible to conduct this type of course (Willis, 1993). For a mixed linguistic level class, the teacher can write different level questions, and students can choose the questions (Grellet, 1981); then, follow the same procedure as above.

Study questions can help students to comprehend and practice reading skills. The reason why I started to give such questions at first was to make sure the students cover the reading assignments, but I have realized that there are some other advantages. First of all, questions can make the students predict and look for answers. Readers ask specific questions, and comprehension involves finding the answers to those questions (Smith, 1978). Secondly, by checking the answers students have written, the teacher can check for comprehension, and if there are some misunderstandings, they can be clarified by discussing them in class. In addition, students who have good writing skills can demonstrate understanding even if they are not very fluent. Some shy students can also receive credit for their written work, and it is possible that they will speak up in class if given a lot of encouragement written by the teacher in their notebooks. Finally, the study questions can become an impetus for discussion. Japanese students often feel more secure when they have something written in front of them before they speak up.

The length of assignments can be problematic. Students often complain that reading 15 pages is too long. Even if I tell them that they do not have to check the meaning of every single unknown word, they usually want to find out the meaning in a bilingual dictionary. Some students make a vocabulary list in Japanese. The use of a bilingual dictionary can hinder the comprehension, and students can collect the words but lose the meaning (Coady, 1979). Guessing from context is very important, but students are afraid of guessing incorrectly. Japanese students have often been trained to translate word by word accurately. If longer passages are assigned to read, it may prevent them from checking all the words they do not know even though it might mean they complain more.

The discussion can help students to understand the meaning, and as mentioned above, it can set them on the right track when they misunderstand. Interactions among students can also be quite beneficial. Usually, the students need a lot of guidance and encouragement from the teacher to carry on a discussion, but sometimes, they can keep going by themselves very well. When the teacher becomes one of the participants in the discussion and only gives help when absolutely necessary, it is ideal. My personal aim is to have the students feel free to agree and disagree with each other during discussions. In my experience, a few years ago, one of the most shy students spoke up against another student's idea by saying, "Well, I do not think so." It was toward the end of the course, and she had not spoken up except for a few words before then, even with much encouragement, so it was a wonderful accomplishment.

The knowledge of Japanese culture can help students to comprehend the story, although they sometimes need a lot of help in connecting their knowledge to the story. It is also quite difficult for students to express their knowledge when supporting their opinions and ideas. When students understand the content, they can feel interested in it. It can be hard to understand the implications and symbolism, but when they understand, they feel amused and excited. In class, when some of them understand and others do not, the former students usually start to explain to the latter. Toward the end of the course, when there are about one or two more sections left, many of them go ahead and finish the book. The fact that they can not wait to receive the study questions on those parts reflects their interest in the story.

Comments from Students

According to the questionnaires I have been giving after each course, many students have responded that they feel very satisfied when they speak during discussion time. Some of them mention the reason is because of the class size. Another reason is that they have the study questions which they can use and thus feel secure in discussion. To the question of whether they are satisfied with what they did in class, about 95% of the students responded "yes," 5%, "I do not know," and none of them

chose "no." In addition, they commented that they were able to understand the story better because of the discussion in class.

Students' feedback indicates a sense of accomplishment after completing the course. They say that they would like to praise themselves for their hard work. Furthermore, they feel very satisfied after finishing two books written in English in one semester, although all of them have expressed that it was very difficult.

Some of them have mentioned that they did not know Japanese literature could be so interesting until they took this class. They say that a story can have a lot of symbolism and implications, and it is very interesting to understand them although it can be very difficult. There was one interesting comment from several students who must have compared the story in English and Japanese. They realized the difference between the expressions in the two languages, and they mentioned that in English the phrases and words tended to be clearer and simpler, while Japanese expressions were indirect and vague.

Students also expressed the difficulties of the course. They said that it took too long to complete the assignments. They commented that the vocabulary and grammar were quite difficult, and that it was hard to guess the meaning from the context. As mentioned earlier, this problem needs to be solved, so that the students can practice prediction, checking, and confirmation which are essential parts of reading skills.

Book Choice

It is important to choose a book students can be interested in. If the material chosen is meaningful and enjoyable for the students, reading can be more beneficial (Collie and Slater, 1987). There are several works which my students have chosen for their book reports and mentioned as being very interesting (see Appendix 1). Some of them have prepared very good visual aids such as pictures and charts, to explain the story for their presentations in class.

I also asked two publishers who distribute Japanese literature books translated into English about the books that have been used in classes recently. Kodansha International responded that quite a variety of books are being used, but the works by female authors such as Sawako Ariyoshi and Fumiko Enchi are especially popular (see Appendix 2). Charles E. Tuttle Company also gave some titles (see Appendix 2).

Conclusion

It might be rather awkward for Japanese students to read some works of Japanese literature in English, but because they know about Japan and Japanese people, they already know or can guess how some characters in the story feel, and they become more interested in the story. When they are interested, they may want to read more, and as a result, their reading skills will improve. It is also very important that the teacher is interested in the material she or he is using in a reading class. The lack of interest can easily influence the students in class (Donan, 1996). The teacher's excitement can transfer to the students; it is hoped that they will become excited, and thus more involved in the story and discussion.

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Appendix 1: Texts Chosen by Students

Dazai, Osamu. (19xx). *No longer human[Ningen shikkaku]* (D. Keene, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle Company. (Original work published 19xx).
Inoue, Yasushi. (19xx). *The hunting gun [Ryo ju]* (S. Yokoo and S. Goldstein, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle Company. (Original work published 19xx).
Miyamoto, Teru. (19xx). *River of fireflies [Hotaru-gawa]* R. F. McCarthy, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Miyazawa, Kenji. (19xx). *Matasaburo: The wind imp. [Kaze no Matasaburo]* (J. Bester, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Natsume, Soseki. (19xx). *Botchan* (A. Turnes, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Shiina, Makoto. (19xx). *My boy [Gaku monogatari]* (F. Schodt, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).

Appendix 2: Japanese Literature in Translation

Ariyoshi, Sawako. (19xx). *The doctor's wife [Hanaoka Seishu no tsuma]* (W. Hironaka & A. S. Kostant, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Ariyoshi, Sawako. (19xx). *The Kabuki dancer [Izumono Okuni]* (J. R. Brandon, Trans). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Ariyoshi, Sawako. (19xx). *The River Ki [Ki no kawa]* (M. Tahara, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Ariyoshi, Sawako. (19xx). *The twilight years [Kokotsu no hito]* (M. Tahara, Trans). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Enchi, Fumiko. (19xx). *The waiting years [Onna zaka]* (J. Bester, Trans.). Tokyo: Kodansha International. (Original work published 19xx).
Hearn, Lafcadio. (19xx). *Kwaidan:stones and studies of strange things [Kaidan]* (U. N. Known, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle. (Original work published 19xx).
Kawabata, Yasunari. (19xx). *Snow country [Yukiguni]* (E. G. Seidensticker, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle. (Original work published 19xx).
Mori, Ogai. (19xx). *The wild geese* (S. Goldstein and K. Ochiai, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle. (Original work published 19xx).
Soseki, Natsume. (19xx). *Botchan* (U. Sasaki, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle. (Original work published 19xx).
Soseki, Natsume.*Kokoro* (19xx). (E. McClellan, Trans.). Boston: Charles E. Tuttle. (Original work published 19xx).

FL Reading and Multi-media: Psycholinguistic Views

Syuhei Kadota
Kwansei Gakuin University

Masao Tada
Osaka International University for Women

Yuko Shimizu
Kinki University

Shinji Kimura
Kwansei Gakuin University

Overall summary

This colloquium focuses on the roles of phonological coding in silent reading and examines how the phonological processor, together with syntactic and semantic processors, provide clues to theorize on the relationship between reading and speech, and leads to the realization of the multi-media nature of human linguistic processing.

First, the relevance and role of phonology is assessed by Syuhei Kadota through (a) surveying past studies on the cognitive role of phonological coding, and (b) presenting a tentative, multi-dimensional model of silent reading, an interactive model stressing the relationship between analytic processors and holistic image processors.

Concerning the issue of processing units in reading, Masao Tada summarizes the previous findings on the effects of recognition of processing units, and reports that preorganized chunked texts significantly facilitate reading comprehension for both proficient and non-proficient learners in Japan.

It is assumed that there are some interesting characteristics of reading behaviors for Japanese college students. Yuko Shimizu reports that her classroom research promotes effective reading, and concludes that the instruction positively influenced the learners' comprehension abilities in listening, as well as their reading efficiency and strategies.

It is claimed that phonology plays a part in incorporating both reading and listening in a unified framework and thus in justifying the multi-media presentation of phonological and textual materials in EFL learning. Shinji Kimura reports on his own work on the effect of such presentation on comprehension and learning, and suggests the possible implications of the psycholinguistic research to future CAI systems for EFL reading.

Syuhei Kadota: How phonology contributes to silent reading: A theoretical framework

Introduction

This report is an attempt to assess the hypothetical roles of phonology in EFL reading comprehension and then to indicate one possible explanation as to the psycholinguistic overlap between reading and listening in EFL.

Phonological coding and silent reading

A review of past studies analyzing EMG amplitudes, letter-search data, the effect of articulatory suppression, brain-imaging during silent reading, etc. unanimously reveals that phonological coding, which ranges from physiologically detectable inner articulation to implicit

auditory image, is activated in the processing of English and Japanese sentences (See Kadota, 1987 for the survey of discourse-level studies).

Concerning the role of phonology in silent reading, two models are so far proposed: (a) a lexical access model (i.e. phonological representation must be fully established before semantic processing takes place) and (b) an integrative model (i.e. phonology plays a part in segmenting input words into processing chunks and is thus concerned with the phonological loop system in Baddeley's WM [working memory]).

In a reaction-time experiment on word-level recognition, Kadota (forthcoming) empirically shows that suppressing phonological awareness does impair access to phonological representation of the words, but the access to word meaning as well as its lexical category is in principle possible without phonological activation.

However, my own earlier works (e.g. Kadota, 1982) suggest that EFL readers, when given an articulatory suppression task while reading a portion of English text, exhibit lower comprehension measured by a post-reading Q & A test. The result indicates that the phonology can be activated in processing written English discourse. Thus the findings, in general, seem to provide positive evidence for the above integrative model of phonological coding.

A tentative role of phonology in formulating comprehension units

It is said that a visual input which is briefly held as an unprocessed iconic sensory pattern needs to be further transmitted to WM, in which the input is assumed to be chunked into some comprehension units. According to Kadota and Tada (1992), there is ample evidence which proves that a constituent, such as a phrase, roughly corresponds to the units of processing in reading English text. In formulating a phrase-like chunk, readers are supposed to employ a variety of information resources (i.e. syntactic, semantic, phonological). Among several phonological variables, the prosodic configuration of a sentence seems to be a highly plausible resource to be employed by many readers in constructing comprehension chunks. In fact, Kadota (1987) conducted a preliminary study as to the effect of irregular rhythmic beats, compared with isochronous beats, on reading comprehension, and suggests that the resultant comprehension loss may be due to the supposed incompatibility between the irregular beats given and the rhythmic awareness possibly aroused by phonological coding and innate human motor rhythm. Thus it seems possible to argue that phonological coding in silent reading does provide readers with prosodic awareness of a printed sentence, and that such clues as a sentence rhythmic pattern may play a role in segmenting words into phrase-like chunks.

Concluding remarks: The possible relationship between reading and listening

Now it is possible to offer two tentative explanations of the relationship between reading and listening. One explanation is a commonly held view: there is much psycholinguistic parallelism between the higher-order stages of the two skills; in the central WM stage, both listening and reading involve a highly active prediction-testing task in which people process linguistic input by constructing chunks and by activating various information resources like formal and content schemata. The other explanation is the view suggested in this report: listening is, as it were, incorporated in the process of reading as its intrinsic component through phonological coding; there might be a common phonological basis which directly unites the two comprehension skills.

Masao Tada: The effects of text preorganization on college level Japanese EFL learners' reading comprehension and speed

Findings from existing studies with regard to the effects of text preorganization (chunked text) on reading comprehension show that text preorganization might not always facilitate reading comprehension. The report focuses on the effects of pre-organized (i. e. chunked) texts on reading comprehension and speed for university/ college English learners in Japan. The results from a series of experimental studies conducted by the researcher are compared in order to clarify (a) whether preorganized

texts (phrase-cued texts) affect the language learners' processing of written texts, and (b) whether training using preorganized text in computer and traditional modes affects reading comprehension. More specifically, the experiments examined the following issues: (a) the effects of different styles of presentation of texts (chunk by chunk vs. word by word) by means of computer on reading comprehension; (b) the effects of different styles of presentation of texts (chunked vs. line by line) by means of computer on free recall; (c) the effects of different styles of pre-organization of paper text (chunked vs. traditional) on reading comprehension for good readers and poor readers ; (d) the effects of different styles of pre-organization of paper text (chunked vs. traditional) on maze task score; and (e) the effects of computer assisted speed reading training on reading speed and comprehension.

The results show that the answer to the question of whether presenting texts in chunks facilitates reading comprehension and rate is both yes and no: it was shown that for computer presentation, the chunk by chunk presentation has an advantage over the word by word presentation and the line by line presentation when the comprehension was measured by recall. However, in the paper presentation there was no advantageous effect found for text manipulation for either high- or low-proficiency learners. Moreover, the results from the maze task score shows that there was a favorable effect for chunked format text.

There are some possible explanations for the statistically significant effect of text pre-organization under computer presentation conditions as opposed to the lack of such effect under paper presentation conditions. It is hypothesized that when the passage was presented on a computer screen, the readers were more able to perceive and process chunks than when it was presented on a sheet of paper, as these chunks were presented one by one as time passed. The cues on paper, on the other hand, were less evident to the readers, and it is not certain that readers' eye fixations were regulated by such chunks. It may be that computer presentation forced eye fixation on each chunk more effectively than the paper presentation did.

The results that there was a favorable effect for chunked format text on the maze task score looks contradictory in relation to the other results. However, the dependent variable in the maze task experiment is a measure for processing the word class form and comprehension at the same time, while the dependent variable for the other experiments were a measure for reading comprehension. Thus, differences in measurement are considered to be a possible source of different results.

The answer to the question of whether the training using preorganized text facilitates reading comprehension is positive. An eight week computer assisted speed reading training period had a statistically significant effect on reading rate and comprehension scores after training. This important finding offers empirical support for the use of computer as a pedagogical tool for training in English reading. The possible explanation for the advantageous effects of computer training is as follows: in the computer presentation used in the present study, the learners eventually got used to the speed of presentation of the texts. Chunk by chunk presentation of the texts may have matched the processing unit size which the learners needed to develop in order to comprehend the texts more efficiently than they had been before the training.

It might be possible that the processing units for reading are similar to the processing units for listening for learners at certain levels of proficiency. This is related to another area of interest: that is, the transfer of reading training using chunked text to listening comprehension.

In summary, the results suggest that computer presentation of preorganized text has a positive effect on reading comprehension and rate, and training using computer facilitates development of reading ability.

Yuko Shimizu: The effects of a reading instruction exercise on comprehension strategies and language abilities of college students in Japan

Introduction

Although findings in contemporary research in L2 reading have been integrated into practice in English classrooms in Japanese colleges, favorable results have not necessarily been observed in learners' performance. Carrell (1988) points out that

some of the causes rendering reading difficult come from a misconception of reading and lack of linguistic and reading skills. As one way to overcome those disadvantages, a speed reading exercise was conducted in a regular classroom situation and it was concluded that the exercise positively influenced the learners' listening and reading abilities,
reading speed, and attitudes towards reading in English.

The study

The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of a speed reading exercise given to Japanese students at the college level. The study attempted to examine the following aspects:

1. attitudinal changes toward reading after the exercise
2. the effects on learners' performance in the following subtests: grammar, reading, and listening
3. the relationship of reading speed and performance on the subtests.

Subjects in this study were 137 first-year college students. Sixty-nine students were assigned as a control group and sixty-eight as an experimental group.

The students in the experimental group were encouraged to read an approximately 700-word passage rapidly. They were required to record the time they took to read the passage as soon as they finished the first reading. Immediately after that, they were asked to answer ten true-false type comprehension questions without referring back to the passage. The exercise was given 15 times; once a week, with a 2-month summer recess.

The results were based on the following data:

1. English subtests: grammar, multiple-choice type cloze test, and the JACET Intermediate Listening Comprehension Test.

The same subtests were used for both pre- and post tests:

2. Words Per Minute measured in April and January.
3. Questionnaire written in Japanese (9 items) concerning general attitudes towards reading in English.

Results

1. Positive attitudinal changes regarding reading

A strong tendency of translation into Japanese, slow reading for understanding, and excessive use of a dictionary were significantly weakened. Also, students began to take more advantage of guessing, previewing, scanning and text organization.

2. Positive effects on English proficiency

Scores in reading and listening tests were significantly increased after the exercise, especially for listening. No significant gain, however, was observed in the grammar test.

3. Improvement in reading speed and performance on the subtests

Fast readers* improved their reading speed dramatically from 100 to 122 WPM. They began to use previewing and scanning more actively, which quickened their reading speed. Slow readers, on the other hand, did not show a significantly improved performance in their WPM. They still showed a strong attachment to translation into Japanese. However, their cloze scores were significantly higher at the level of .01.

The difference between the fast and slow readers was not significant in reading and listening performance. This indicated that reading speed was not a reliable indicator. However, grammar scores on the post test significantly distinguished the two readers at a level of .0053. Lack of grammatical competence was a linguistic disadvantage and prevented the slow readers from increasing their reading speed.

* Using the WPM score measured at the end of the exercise, the top 25 students were assigned as the fast readers and the bottom 25 as the slow readers.

Conclusion

The present study has attempted to examine the effects of a speed reading exercise on students' attitudes toward reading and their English ability. As a by-product of the exercise, the students were given the benefits of becoming active readers, utilizing reading skills. Also, the exercise contributed to improving learners' reading and listening abilities and reading speed. However, the slow readers did not show an increase in their WPM. They still

depended on translation and did not utilize as many reading skills as the fast readers, which prevented them from increasing their reading speed. One element which distinguished the slow and fast readers in the present study was their grammatical ability. Grammar competence is possibly working as a latent ability, which facilitates the acquisition of reading skills and the increase of reading speed.

Shinji Kimura: Multimedia: a psycholinguistic view

Although a great deal of research has been conducted to investigate the effect of integrated presentation of information (textual, phonological, pictorial and graphical) on comprehension (e.g. Baransford & Johnson, 1972; Hirose & Kamei, 1993; Levie & Lentz, 1982; Omaggio 1979), no research has ever clarified the role of phonological input in second language reading comprehension. Reading while listening, which has been reported to be effective for problematic learners in the first language classroom (Carbo 1978; Chomsky 1976; Gamby 1983), is also a popular activity in both English as a foreign/second language classrooms, and computer assisted multimedia teaching materials. The interesting fact is that no one knows if such integrated input is potentially facilitative, or at least harmless, for second language reading comprehension.

This study investigated the effect of integrated input, textual and phonological, on foreign language reading comprehension by comparing reading comprehension test scores obtained under two conditions, one tested while listening to recorded passages and the other without such an aid. In addition to the tests, the subjects were asked about which condition they preferred to read under.

A negative effect of listening on reading was hypothesized, with the following reasons:

1. The part of a passage which a reader wants to read does not always correspond with the part they hear from the recorded tape. It probably becomes difficult if the reading speed of the recorded passage is much slower or faster than his/her own desireable reading speed.

2. When the speed of the recorded passage is slow or fast, a reader may give up reading at his/her own pace and try to read the corresponding part of the passage he/she hears. If the recording is slow and the total reading time is limited, he/she is forced to spend more time than he/she needs for reading, and loses time for reveiwing the passage. This results in weaker comprehension.

3. Phonological coding while reading is considered to play a significant role in the comprehension of the passage (Kadota 1987). If the own-coding (which naturally occurs during silent reading) and outside-coding (while listening to recorded passages) mismatch, outside-coding can interfere with comprehension.

A total of 312 Japanese EFL learners at university level participated in three experiments with different reading speed and passage difficulty. Unpaired t-tests revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between listening vs. non-listening, regardless of reading speed and passage difficulty ($t=-.381$, $df=358$, $p=.704$), ($t=.492$, $df=358$, $p=.623$), ($t=-.285$, $df=162$, $p=.776$), ($t=.291$, $df=98$, $p=.772$), ($t=.571$, $df=158$, $p=.569$).

$X2$ tests revealed that the more difficult the passages were, or the faster the reading speed was, the more subjects preferred the condition with phonological input ($X2=4.66$, $df=2$, $p=.097$). The results of the study suggest that listening while reading neither harms nor facilitates reading activities.

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Vocabulary Building with Student-Selected Words

Robin Nagano
Nagaoka University of Technology

Introduction

Learners at the intermediate level and above normally come to the classroom with varied sets of vocabulary. This is due not only to variation in previous instruction and exposure, but also to individual interests and needs. This situation creates some practical problems for explicit vocabulary teaching, as it can be difficult to identify words that will be both new and useful to most students. What suits one will not be of use to another; this contributes to problems of motivation. The easiest solution is for each student to select words that he feels will be of use to him, from a context that fits his own interests and needs. However, this in turn creates difficulties in the classroom. How can the teacher ensure that the vocabulary is learned, and give credit for it, without being required to create a different test for each student? Will the students pay attention to more than the translated meaning of the word? Will they bother to search for the additional information required in order to learn a word well enough to use it? Will they encounter it often enough to embed it in memory without it being deliberately recycled in class?

The amount of exposure required to learn a word seems likely to vary according to factors such as its visual evocativeness, learner interest, and its frequency or saliency (Brown, 1993, found that salience from focus seemed to be less of a factor than salience from what the learners have experienced as a gap in their knowledge). One method of increasing salience is allowing students to choose the words they wish to learn, which Swaffer found also improved the rate of retention (1988, cited in Oxford and Scarcella, 1994).

Brown and Payne (1994, cited in Hatch and Brown, 1995) have identified five essential steps in vocabulary learning, the first of which is *encountering the word*. This may, of course, occur either inside or outside of the classroom, and the number of new words encountered may vary according to whether a student seeks out opportunities for contact with the language, particularly when it is being learned as a foreign language.

The second of Brown and Payne's five steps, *getting the word form*, is one that

seems to cause problems for L2 students in many ways. One is that it takes longer to identify or decipher words, as is shown by the longer visual fixation time on each word displayed by second language learners (see Haynes, 1993). Another difficulty experienced is faulty deciphering of words due to graphemic or phonemic mismatches; these misunderstandings tend to persist even if there is a conflict with the context (Haynes, 1993). The spelling and pronunciation of the word are items that must be established before progressing to the next step.

Getting the word meaning is likely to require an accumulation of information, which may or may not include dictionary-type definitions. Studies have shown that vocabulary instruction that simply provides a definition has little if no effect on reading comprehension (see Nagy and Herman, 1987). Classroom instruction would have to be rich indeed to supply enough information to take this step all at once. Repetition and revision would seem to be required, as the amount of input increases and guesses can be rejected or confirmed.

Although Brown and Payne present the five steps consecutively, it would seem that *consolidating word form and meaning in memory* must be intertwined with the steps above and below; as information is added through finding additional meanings, or as restrictions to its use are found, alterations will take place in the lexical entry in the memory. Lexical entries, while still under investigation, are presumed to contain (or have links to) information on form, meaning, syntax, associations, collocations, semantic categories, register — in short, all of the information required to interpret and use the word. Oxford identifies major memory strategies as: creating mental linkages; applying images and sounds; reviewing well; and employing action. These are applied for storage in memory, but also play a role in retrieval (1990, p. 58).

Oxford and Scarcella (1994) divide vocabulary learning activities into decontextualized (word lists, flashcards, dictionary look-up), partially contextualized (such as visual and aural imagery, the keyword method, physical response, and semantic mapping), and fully contextualized activities. Some of the activities which students can use on their own to aid acquisition include focusing attention on the grammatical form and other words in the family; semantic mapping to help with creating mental linkages; definitions both in L1 and L2 (from a learner's dictionary); example sentences; drawing a picture or series of pictures of the word; and collecting collocations and syntactic information for grammatical use. The keyword method has frequently been reported to be effective (e.g. Brown and Perry, 1991; Ellis and Beaton, 1993).

In *using the word*, feedback from the success (or otherwise) of the word in that situation will most likely be added to the lexical entry. However, failure to reach the final step does not mean that the word has not been learned. Hatch and Brown (1995) point out that words may be available for use but that the learner chooses not to use them, because of awareness of register or associations that the learner does not wish to convey. In addition, active use of the word may not be an objective or requirement in the case of receptive knowledge. While the full complement of information on syntactic restrictions, register, or collocations may not be sufficient for actual use, an understanding of the word in context may still be possible. Crow and Quigley (1985) explored one method utilizing a semantic field approach to help students gain a larger receptive vocabulary for their academic reading needs.

A vocabulary card & quiz system

The following system was developed as one possible way to assist students in identifying the various aspects of words and making connections. It allows students to select their own vocabulary words and create detailed vocabulary cards focused on them, at the same time that it permits the teacher a means of evaluation.

The cards

Students are required to produce three vocabulary cards a week, in the style shown in Figure 1. The student may choose the words freely, but it is recommended that they be taken from some source besides the dictionary, such as class reading materials, other English classes, or vocabulary related to a hobby or field of study. Items to be

filled in on the front of the card are: the target word; its pronunciation; its part of speech and variations of other parts of speech; related words or phrases, to include similar and opposite words if applicable (semantic categories and associations); a picture representing the word; and "other information", which could include common collocations, syntax, notes on register, etc. Items to be filled in on the back of the card are: L1 meaning, L2 definition (from a learner's dictionary, if possible), an example sentence (preferably from the original source), and for management, the date made, dates reviewed, and the source of the word. Students reported spending between 5 and 50 minutes on making a card, with the typical student spending 10-15 minutes per card.

The quizzes

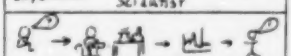
Pairs of students conduct quizzes, using the sheet shown in Figure 2. They write their words in the table (three new ones and two previous low-scoring words), and exchange the quiz sheet and their cards with their partner. They then take turns quizzing each other on their words within the time given (usually 20-25 minutes). One point is given for each response, so that three points would be obtained if three different related words were given. Partners check answers on the cards, and are permitted to use their own judgement for acceptability. The total score is then written on a sheet submitted to the teacher each week. Typical scores ranged from 12 to 15 points per word. Ideally, the quiz itself

FIGURE 1 Layout of Vocabulary Cards and Sample

(front)

THE WORD	related words & opposites & similar words
pronunciation	a picture of the word
other forms	other information (words used with the word, formal or casual, grammar, etc)

SAMPLE

research	laboratory, report, journal, experiment, RESEARCH = study, scientist
risā ch (us risā ch)	
(n) research (v) research (n) researcher	do ~ on/into research lab perform ~ marker research conduct ~

(back)

meaning in Japanese	definition in English (learner's dictionary is best)
	example sentence(s)
source	date made, dates reviewed

(名詞) 研究 調査	a detailed and careful study of sth to find out more information about it
	P is/ has been doing research on ☐ for 20 years
article #2	9/23 9/8 9/24

FIGURE 2 Vocabulary Quiz Sheet

Date: Partner: Total score:

WORD	spelling	meaning	forms	similar	related	example	used with	score

would be conducted in the target language, for example, "What does the word mean?", but most pairs either used shortcuts ("Meaning.") or their L1.

Possible variations:

1. When quizzing, the partner randomly chooses a card and reads the English definition of the word. Three points are given for successful identification of the target word. The rest of the quiz continues as usual.
2. Small groups select appropriate words from a class-related source. All members contribute related words. Each member makes cards for some words and photocopies them before the next class. This adds a step, but also adds discussion on the best words to include.
3. With speed quizzes, the student should name, for instance, two related words for as many cards as possible within the time limit (5-10 minutes).

Evaluation of the system

The card and quiz system was used in three English classes in a Japanese national university, with a total of 113 students, for a period of 10 to 25 weeks. Questionnaires showed that students were generally satisfied with the system, and felt that it was useful for learning new words (Figure 3). Students were asked to rate each item on the card on a 5-point scale for its usefulness to them in learning the target word (Figure 4). It is no surprise that *L1 meaning* is considered most useful, but it is encouraging to see the high ranking given to *related words*, for instance. While it is unclear whether mapping of related words is a new strategy to the students, it seems clear that it is or has become a valued one. Several students commented that this item helped them to become familiar with new words other than the target word. Unfortunately, there is no data available concerning the attitudes of students prior to working with the system.

Usefulness of Various Items

Although there was general agreement on most items, responses were divided on the *picture*, which the majority of students judged as being of no use, while others found it very useful (very likely a reflection of personal learning styles). Predictably, students who utilized the *other information* section more actively rated it as more useful. Although *L2 definition* is ranked as of

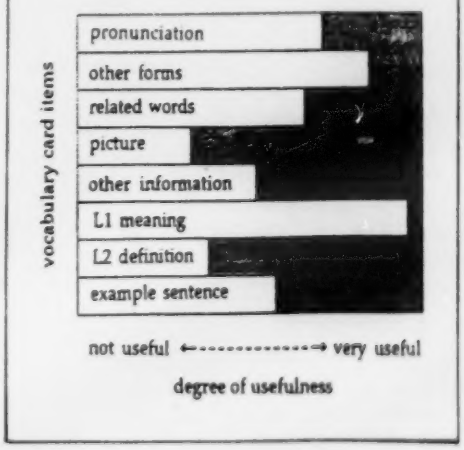
FIGURE 3 Selected Student Comments

*Vocab cardを作り、similarやopposite の単語を調べることにより、単語の意味の関係を知ることができるので良い方法であると思う。(Through making the vocabulary cards and looking up similar and opposite words, I can see the relationship between words, so I think it's a good method.)

*論文や英語の教科書を読むときに役立っている。(It has proven useful to me when reading research papers and English textbooks.)

*自分の英語力に見合った単語をえらべば、単語力があがると思う。(If you pick words that fit your level, I think your vocabulary will increase.)

FIGURE 4 Student Evaluation of the Usefulness of Various Items



relatively little use, it would be interesting to examine this rating for any changes after introducing variation (1) above.

Perhaps the most important benefit of this system is that students come to realize that just knowing the L1 translation of a word is not sufficient (though clearly very useful). Side benefits include being exposed to numerous non-target words, especially in the related words section and through contact with their quiz partner's words. Students also become more comfortable in using monolingual dictionaries. Another important point is that students are exercising initiative in choosing their own words. This may prompt them to keep their eyes open for new words, and encourage them to consider what words are worth learning (or worth spending the time for creating a card). In addition, the teacher is receiving a score which can be used for assessment.

There are some difficulties remaining. The largest is that words chosen are sometimes rather obscure. These are almost invariably found in a bilingual dictionary, either during a random search or as a translation of a certain word. Students need to be encouraged to take words from use in context, and some training in recognizing important words would probably help them make more appropriate choices. In addition, a way of checking pronunciation needs to be devised, and a way to further encourage regular review would be helpful.

Conclusion

The system explained above requires a rather large commitment of time, both in the classroom and in student preparation, and the list of target words will not be a long one. However, if it can serve as a means of training students in the various factors that are involved in learning a word, it can play a large and long-term role in vocabulary acquisition. The results of the student questionnaire and observation of students indicate that the system does have a positive effect on student behavior when approaching the task of learning a new word. Students who are aware of what is useful for them are better able to take on the task of teaching themselves the words they need to know, and have taken several steps towards becoming independent learners.

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「～が好き／嫌い」と「～を好き／嫌い」に関する使用意識調査と分析

～推計学的アプローチ～

石田孝子
山口大学非常勤講師

林伸一
山口大学人文学部

1．はじめに

母語において助詞に相当する形式を持たない日本語学習者にとって、どのような品詞にどのような助詞をつけるかという規則を体系的に学習することは非常に難しく、日本語上級者にとっても日本語習得の大きな課題である。しかし、日本人は助詞の使用に関して「学習」(learning)ではなく「習得」(aquisition)という形で自然に身につけているので日本人は助詞の使用の規則性について深く注意を払わずに日本語を運用している。従って、日本語を母語とする日本人であっても、一部の助詞の使用についての一貫性があるとは限らないようである。

特に、「好き」の対象語に「が」を用いるか、「を」を用いるかが現在の日本語の助詞の使用の中で疑問となるところである。実際に、テレビドラマや歌の歌詞、雑誌等で「～を好き」の文を耳にしたり、目にしたりするが、日本語教育においては、森田(1980)が「『～を好きだ』のような形はもちろん誤用である」と指適している。そこで、日本語を教える者にとっては、「～が好き」を正用とし、「～を好き」を誤用とするのか、あるいは許容とするのか、或は「～が好き」と「～を好き」のどちらもが正用で併用されているとするのか、が問題となる。また、「～を好き」の反義語となる「～を嫌い」の日本人の使用意識に関してはどうなのかも興味深い。特に、英語では動詞「like」の後に目的語（一般的に目的語は「～を」と訳される）がくるという指導をされるので、英語教育を受ける中学生から大学生の年齢層で「～を好き／嫌い」の使用意識が高いのではないかと予想される

そこで本稿では、アンケート＜1＞で「…は～が好きです」「…は～を好きです」「…が～が好きです」、アンケート＜2＞で「…は～が嫌いです」「…は～を嫌いです」「…が～が嫌いです」の各文に関して、日本人がどの程度聞いたり使用しているという意識をもっているのかということを記述式調査とインタビュー調査を行った結果を報告する。さらに、英語教育が日本語に影響しているかどうかを調べるために、「～を好き／嫌い」の使用に関して年齢差があるか否かをカイ2乗検定で調べた。

2.アンケート調査

アンケート＜1＞は「私は先生が好きです」「私は先生を好きです」「私が先生を好きです」などの文を示し、A（使う、使わない）、B（聞いたことがある、聞いたことがない）、という項目にそれぞれ○印でチェックする形を取った。さらに、「先生」のところを「犬」、「スポーツ」に置き換えた文も示し、同様にチェックする形を取った。対象語に「Yが好きです」のような中立かつ抽象的なものではなく、具体的な「先生」、「犬」、「スポーツ」を入れたことで、回答者の対象語に関する個人的感情がデータに影響する可能性はある。例えば、回答者にとって「先生」の存在自体が好きではないため、「先生が好きです」「先生を好きです」の両者共、使わない、聞いたことがないという答えになってしまう可能性もある。しかし、「Yが／を」という対象語を入れても回答者には数式のような無機質的なイメージしか湧いてこないだろう。そこで、本研究ではあえて具体的な

対象語を入れることで、回答者に生活に密接な状況を提示し、より実際の日本語運用場面での使用意識に近づけることができると考えた。さらに、自由記述において、「～が好き／嫌い」「～を好き／嫌い」の違いについての説明を求めた。

アンケート回答者の内訳は表1－1、表1－2に示す。

アンケートの結果、「…は～が好きです」と「…は～が嫌いです」（ハガ構文）を使う・聞いたことがある人は「先生」「犬」「スポーツ」共に94%以上で最も多かった。従って、「好き」「嫌い」に関するハガ構文は規範文の資格を得ていると言える。

一方、「…は～を好きです」（ハヲ構文）の使用に関しては、対象語によって差が出ている。「先生」は43.5%、「犬」は33.1%となり、「スポーツ」になると24.8%に留まった。また「…は～を嫌いです」に関しては、対象語が「先生」は20.4%、「犬」は14.1%、「スポーツ」霊15.4%と、「～を好き」の文と比較して使用意識は低い。「…は～を嫌いです」の文は対象語が何であれ、ハガ構文と同等に扱うことは難しい。現段階では規範文の資格を得ているとは言い難い。「私は先生を好きです」の文に関しては4割以上の回答者の使用意識があることから、規範文でないと単に無視できないと言える。

「…が～が好きです」（ガガ構文）に関しては、使うと答えた人は1割台、聞いたことがあると答えた人も2割台で、ハガ構文やハヲ構文と比較すると非常に少なかった。さらに、「…が～が嫌いです」に関しては、使うと答えた人はいずれも8%以下で1割にも満たず、聞いたことがあると答えた人も1割台に留まった。その理由を考えると、ガガ構文では、行為主体と行為対象とがそれぞれどちらにあるのか判別できないからではないだろうか。例えば、「私が先生が好きです」の文では、「私」は好かれる対象とも、好く主体とも考えられる。また「先生」についても同様のことが言える。三上（1960：201）は「『ガ』が近接して二続く危険があるときに、それを本能的（？）に避けようとする心理もはたらく」とし、また「『ガ』が重なることは、ことに接近して重なることは好ましくありません」（1960：199）と指摘している。さらに木船 都（1995：29）も「『が』が重なって、視覚的にも聴覚的にもうるさい感じがする」としている。以上の理由からガガ構文を使う人が少ないと考えられる。

3－2　「～を好き／嫌い」の使用における年齢差

実際に中学校の英語教育では、"I like X."の場合、中学生に指導する際は、Xが目的各であることを強調するため、「私はXを好きです」と訳して教えることがあるという意見も何人かの英語教師から聞いた。自由記述の中でも、「『を好きです』は目的をはっきりさせる（英語的）。日本語としては使わない。英語を直訳した文章」（社会人女性57歳）という意見があった。そこで、英語教育の影響を受けて中高生、そして大学生によるハヲ構文の使用意識が高くなるという仮説を立て、小学生、中高生、大学生、社会人と年齢層に分けて、カイ2乗検定をおこなった。特に対象語が「先生」の文＜2＞の結果を表3－1～表3－4に示す。

表3－1を見ると、「私は先生を好きです」の文に関しては0.0001%以下の危険率で有意さが認められた。有意差の要因は、小学生と中高生において、使う実数が使わない実数を3：2の割合で上回っているのに対して、大学生では3：7、社会人では2：3とその関係が逆転し、使う実数が使わない実数を下回っている点にある。表3－2の「先生を好きです」を聞いたことがあるかないか（以下聞く、聞かない）については有意差は認められなかった。表3－3の「先生を嫌い」の文では0.0001%以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使うか使わないかの実数は、小学生2：3、中高生1：5、大学生1：10、社会人1：4の割合で、全体では1：4の割合で使わない実数が多いのに対し、小学生の使うと答えた比率が他の年齢階層より高いこと、大学生の使うと答えた実数が他の年齢階層より非常に低いことが要因ではないかと考えられる。

文＜5＞の「私は犬を好きです」では0.0001%以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、小学生＞中高生＞大学生＞社会人の割合で使うと答えた実数が減ってくる。聞く、聞かないに関しても0.5%以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使用学生だけが2：1で聞くと答えた実数が多いが、他の年齢階層では聞く：聞かないがほぼ等しく1：1の割合であった。一方「私は犬を嫌いです」に関しては、0.1%以下の危険率で有意差が認められた。使う：使わないの実数が小学

生１：４、中高生１：１０、大学生１：１０、社会人１：７の割合であった。「犬を好き」と比較すると、使うと答えた実数は社会人以外の各年齢層半数以下であった。「スポーツを好きです」では0.1％以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、対象語が「先生」「犬」の場合と異なり、使うと答えた実数は低いが、年齢階層による割合が小学生３：７、中高生２：３、大学生１：４、社会人１：４と中高生が使うと答えた割合が一番高かった。しかしながら、反対に「スポーツを嫌い」に関しては、0.001％以下の危険率で有意差が認められ、小学生３：７、中高生１：５、大学生１：１５、社会人１：９の割合で使う、使わないと答えている。小学生では「スポーツを好き」「スポーツを嫌い」の使用意識に相違はないが、中高生では明らかに格差がでている。

4.考察と今後の課題

全体的にカイ２乗検定の結果を見ると、ハヲ構文において一番小学生の使用意識が高かった。小学生は英語教育の影響をまだ受けていない段階なので、仮説は崩れたわけである。寺内「1994：24－25）は（L１学習者の形態素の習得順序には一定の順序が存在するのではないかという仮説が注目を集めるようになった」としている。各助詞「ガ」と「ヲ」についても、習得順序があり、小学生についてはまだ、各助詞を完全に習得する段階まで至っていないのかもしれない。それ故に年齢階層による有意差が認められたのではないだろうか。しかし、本稿は寺内が言及しているように、横断的方法で得られた情報であり、結果を一般化しやすいとはいえ、習得順序を示唆するのみにとどまる。一般化しにくいとはいえ、縦断的研究を行い実際の習得順序を研究していくことを今後の研究課題としたい。

また、大学生のハヲ構文に対する使用意識が最も低かったという結果は、規範に従わなければならないという認識が強いせいではないだろうか。規則、規範性を頭に詰め込むことで高い点を取っていくことにつながる受験勉強の影響があるかもしれない。一方、社会人になるとハヲ構文を「聞く」と答えた割合が大学生と比較して高くなるのは、子供と接する機会が増えて「子供から聞く」可能性が高くなるためだと考えられる。

さらに英語教育の影響に関する自由記述を紹介したい。

・「『～を嫌いです」は不自然。『～を好きです」は場合によって使うこともあるし、聞いてもあまり変ではないが…。英語でlikeを習うときは『～を好き」と訳すようにと言われたような気もするが、dislikeは『嫌っている」、hateは『憎む」と教えられたと思う。だから『嫌い」は『好き」と違って英語学習の方面からの混同も少ないのではないだろうか」（大学生女性　21歳）

確かにハヲ構文の使用は英語の直訳的構文であるという認識があるだろう。どこか不自然な日本語であることを中高生は感じているだろう。確かに小学生と中高生を比較すると、英語教育の影響を受けていない小学生の方が使用意識は高かった。しかし前述した様に格助詞の習得過程に起因しているのかもしれない。中高生と大学生･社会人とを比較すると特に「～を好きです」においては使用意識が高いことがわかる。しかしながら、本稿では英語教育の影響が「～を好き」のハヲ構文の使用に影響しているとは言い切れない。さらに、全般的に「～を嫌い」に関しては「～を好き」と比較して、使用意識は低かった。英語の動詞”HATE, DISLIKE”の場合、自由記述からもわかるように「～を嫌いです」と指導されず「嫌い」におけるハヲ構文の使用意識がより低くなる可能性もある。英語教育者の和訳指導に関する意識を調査していくことも考察をより深くするために必要である。しかし現状では、「～を好き」より「～を嫌い」の方が受け入れられにくい要因として、英語教育の影響があるという考えは一般化できない。英語教育の影響よりも日本語自体強い否定的表現を避ける傾向があることが要因ではないだろうか。ハガ構文に関してはもともと規範文であるという認識から、「嫌い」という言葉に引きずられずに規範文の資格を十分得る96％以上の回答者が使用意識を持っていることがデータに現れた。しかしハヲ構文になると「好き」と比べて約半数の20.4％、14.1％、15.4％に減っている。「ヲ」格に関して、「好き」と「嫌い」がなぜ連動しないのか、本調査ではその理由がわからない。連動しない理由を調査することを今後の課題としたい。

さらに本稿では紙面の都合上詳しく検討できなかったが、ヲ格の使用意識が対象によって影響されるということがわかった。カイ２乗検定の結果、対象が有情の場合ヲ格を使う、聞く可能性が高くなり、一方無情の場合、ヲ格を使う、聞く可能性が低くなることに対して極めて高い確率で有意差が認められた。この結果木船都（1995：

の「対象が有情物の場合にはヲ格が多く出現し、無情物の場合には、ガ格の出現が多くなる」との知見を支持するものである。しかし、有情の対象である「先生」と「犬」を比較すると、有意差の有無や、危険率に違いがみられた。そこで、対象語によってガ格とヲ格の使用意識がどのように変化するのかを比較調査することも今後の課題としたい。

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表1 1　アンケート①有効回答者内訳　（　）内の数は年齢

性別	小学生（7 12）	中高生（12 17）	大学生（18 21）	社会人（21 73）	総合計
男	71	25	126	34	256
女	69	34	64	81	248
合計	140	59	190	115	504

表1 2　アンケート②有効回答者内訳　（　）内の数は年齢

性別	小学生（7 12）	中高生（12 17）	大学生（18 24）	社会人（20 63）	総合計
男	75	30	75	29	209
女	63	30	55	84	232
計	138	60	130	113	441

3．調査結果

3－1　アンケート集計結果

表2－1　アンケート①集計結果

	使う　（%）	使わない　（%）	聞いたことがある（%）	聞いたことがない（%）
①私は先生が好きです	476（94.4）	28（5.6）	481（95.4）	23（4.6）
②私は先生を好きです	219（43.5）	285（56.5）	369（73.2）	135（26.8）
③私が先生が好きです	69（13.7）	435（86.3）	132（26.2）	372（73.8）
④私は犬が好きです	491（97.4）	13（2.6）	495（98.2）	9（1.8）
⑤私は犬を好きです	167（33.1）	337（66.9）	282（56.0）	222（44.0）
⑥私が犬が好きです	91（18.1）	413（81.9）	146（29.0）	358（71.0）
⑦私はスポーツが好きです	495（98.2）	9（1.8）	496（98.4）	8（1.6）
⑧私はスポーツを好きです	125（24.8）	379（75.2）	228（45.2）	276（54.8）
⑨私がスポーツが好きです	73（14.5）	431（85.5）	135（26.8）	369（73.2）

表2－2　アンケート②集計結果

	使う　（%）	使わない　（%）	聞いたことがある（%）	聞いたことがない（%）
①私は先生が嫌いです	426（96.6）	15（3.4）	423（96.0）	18（4.0）
②私は先生を嫌いです	90（20.4）	351（79.6）	194（44.0）	247（56.0）
③私が先生が嫌いです	26（5.9）	415（94.1）	72（16.3）	369（83.7）
④私は犬が嫌いです	427（96.8）	14（3.2）	436（98.9）	5（1.1）
⑤私は犬を嫌いです	62（14.1）	379（85.9）	175（39.7）	266（60.3）
⑥私が犬が嫌いです	33（7.5）	408（92.5）	62（14.1）	379（85.9）
⑦私はスポーツが嫌いです	425（96.4）	16（3.6）	435（98.6）	6（1.4）
⑧私はスポーツを嫌いです	68（15.4）	373（84.6）	151（34.2）	290（65.8）
⑨私がスポーツが嫌いです	28（6.3）	413（93.7）	55（12.5）	386（87.5）

表3 1　文②「私は先生を好きです」

	小学生	中高生	大学生	社会人	計
使う	81	35	56	47	219
使わない	59	24	134	68	285
計	140	59	190	115	504

カイ2乗値 33.3　自由度 3　P<0.000001

表3 2

	小学生	中高生	大学生	社会人	計
聞く	103	44	138	84	369
聞かない	37	15	52	31	135
計	140	59	190	115	504

カイ2乗値 0.1　自由度 3　有意差なし

表3 3　文②「私は先生を嫌いです」

	小学生	中高生	大学生	社会人	計
使う	50	10	11	19	90
使わない	88	50	119	94	351
計	138	60	130	113	441

カイ2乗値 34.1　自由度 3　P<0.000001

表3 4

	小学生	中高生	大学生	社会人	計
聞く	65	23	38	68	194
聞かない	73	37	92	45	247
計	138	60	130	113	441

カイ2乗値 24.8　自由度 3　P<0.00005

Create a Writing Environment for Real Beginners

Joyce Roth
Seian Girls' Senior High School, Kyoto

Writing performs a number of functions that neither a conversation class nor a grammar lesson can. For one thing, it provides students with an opportunity to produce language that is more thoughtful. Writing allows students to think about what they want to say, to practice new or difficult vocabulary and grammar, to share their own experiences, and to present their ideas and opinions. Of course, these can be done in an oral classroom, but with writing, there is the added advantage of time -- time to ask others for information, time to check sources, time to experiment with different ways of saying the same thing. There is time, too, for the teacher to interact with every student. Whereas the grammar class gives opportunity for practice, the writing class gives opportunity to make choices of words and ideas. Secondly, writing is less threatening than oral language because students don't have to perform in front of the class. With the teacher as the primary audience, there is no such thing as a bad idea, a wrong opinion, or a meaningless experience. Finally, writing allows for differences in ability. Students who learn fast or who have a better grasp of English or who have a broader life experience may progress faster, writing longer and better essays than students who don't or can't write as well.

These arguments have convinced me that much more writing should be done by students of all ages, but most teachers I have talked to say they don't know how to plan, teach, assign, check, or grade essays. After years of teaching writing myself at various grades and ability levels, I'm more convinced than ever that writing has value for language learning and can be incorporated into regular English classes.

"Not enough time," is a familiar lament of language teachers. With all of the vocabulary and grammar that must be taught and with all of the mechanical and manipulative drill that needs to be done, there is precious little time left to teach writing. But, if teachers look realistically at how much language is actually remembered compared to what is taught, all must agree that something needs to be done at the earlier levels to encourage better retention. Relevancy is most certainly a primary factor in retention, and so writing about their own experiences and ideas enables students to remember more. Thus, the time wasted reteaching forgotten vocabulary and grammar is replaced by time more valuably spent introducing new language. Besides, writing can be done outside of class. Writing gives the students time to think about grammar and vocabulary, time to reorganize and edit, and time to correct—activities which rarely take place in a typical language class.

Beginning a Writing Course

When a writing course is begun at any ability level, in junior or senior high, or university, either taught by a native or non-native speaker/teacher, two assumptions can be made. The first is that students have never learned how to write their own essays. Everything the teacher requires of them is new whether it be journal writing, free writing, thoughtful essays, or whatever. The second is akin to the first; that is that the students won't have any idea what the teacher is talking about, no matter what the classroom language is. Students are not familiar with terminology, such as indent, topic sentence, organize, revise. Teachers, therefore, will have to give opportunities to

write that require a minimum of brief and simple instructions and which then can form a foundation for further instruction.

On the first day of a writing course, the teacher should ask for a writing sample. In my class, on a B4 page with the lines for writing, students choose from three titles — "Dogs and Cats," "Books," and "My Favorite Place in Kyoto." After making sure that each student knows she should write whatever she pleases on only one topic, I ask all the students to begin and stop them after fifteen minutes. The second half of the B4 page, which has been turned under while they write their sample, shows a simple format with a title, margin, indentation, and double spacing. Below that, the students rewrite their first paragraph in cursive according to the new format and then look in awe at how much they have improved in just one day. At the end of the course, when these papers are brought out again, the students are incredulous about how easy writing has become.

Initial writing assignments should be based on personal experiences, making it easy for the students to put already generated ideas onto paper. The first assignment in my class is a letter to me introducing themselves, written on stationery, and with pictures enclosed. The second is a paragraph about one event that happened last year, such as graduation day or a school trip. The third is generated from their oral class text, *East-West 1* (OUP), lesson 2, which teaches prepositions and names of furniture. The students draw a floor plan of their own bedroom and then describe what is in the room, starting from the door. Other assignments are given that also touch on lessons from their oral text.

One way to build writing confidence is through timed free writing. I tell students that the flow of ideas is irrelevant and mistakes are of no consequence, and most students, therefore, seem to lose their fear of writing. The 'no eraser' rule encourages a freer flow as it eliminates the need for correctness.

What To Teach

These early assignments, although designed to be easy, are not easy at all. Because students are untrained and lack confidence, and because there are no correct answers, they are afraid and/or hesitant to commit themselves to paper. Several times during each class, I remind them that they can, in fact, learn to write, that mistakes are okay, and that writing is fun. When they discover that their friends and other teachers are impressed with their writing, they discover the satisfaction of writing, too.

Once the students know they can write, more formal instruction begins. Introducing the vocabulary necessary for talking about composition is essential, but difficult. Until it registers, I try to explain the phrases like 'topic sentence' each time I use it and to remind them each time they write to use what I have taught them. We talk about the first sentence as one that tells the reader what you are going to write about (topic sentence). Later we decide that the writer can use a couple of sentences before that to catch the reader's attention. And then we talk about sentences that stretch and explain what the writer is writing about (supporting sentences). And of course these sentences have to be in some kind of order that helps the reader understand what the writer is trying to say (organization). After the essay has been written, the writer, with the help of the teacher and friends, can do some rearranging of ideas and adding of more information and examples (revising) (peer editing). Once the ideas are down on paper, then it is time to look for mistakes (editing). In the early stages of writing, we do not spend much time on editing. I find it more valuable to work with ideas with beginning writers, and have noticed that their grammar learning from previous classes starts to influence their writing when they become more comfortable with writing. In fact, in second, third and fourth drafts, a considerable amount of correcting seems to be done subconsciously.

Organizing the Work

Every assignment is printed on a B4 page. Directions for the assignment and work-up exercises are there, as well as lines for doing those exercises and writing the first draft. This work is folded to the inside; the student's name, class number and assignment title is written in the upper right hand corner. Every paper relevant to the assignment is inserted into this folder. First drafts are usually collected on the same day,

but because the ability of the students is so varied, subsequent drafts are turned in at different times. In the early stages, students' errors are often similar, so I print a list of common problems, circle the appropriate comment and staple it to the draft. Later, when the comments need to be more varied for each student, I write the comments on the outside of the folder. I also write the dates that the drafts and final essay are submitted.

Final papers in my class have to be written in ink using cursive letters and be double spaced. The double spacing and ink is for my benefit—it's easier on my eyes. Cursive writing is my personal choice, not one that determines whether a composition is good or not. It is my way of helping them develop attractive handwriting.

Grading varies from paper to paper, depending on what I have emphasized in class, and so I make up a grading sheet for each essay. For early papers, I give more points for format and less for content. Later, they are graded on the clear use of topic and supporting sentences. I also give points for the length of the essay and for the average sentence length as an incentive to write more information and to use more complex sentences. The grading sheet is stapled to the final essay to show the student where her weaknesses and strengths lie. No red marks are put on the essay, leaving it 'clean' as a souvenir of work well done.

Conclusion

In my presentation at JALT96, I tried to show how time to find information, time to experiment with language, and time to practice writing in a positive atmosphere all enhance a student's overall language comprehension. Additionally, I tried to demonstrate with student samples and comments on how writing promotes enthusiasm for learning and satisfaction for a job well done. Life is filled with events and experiences, feelings, thoughts, and ideas that need to be recorded. Conversing in English is rewarding; grammar lessons are essential. Writing, whether it be a journal or essay, however, is a tangible record of a student's progress both in English and in the development of expression.

Preparing Students to Write in their Disciplines

Thomas Orr
University of Aizu

Introduction

All good language instruction is goal-driven. Specific language features are taught to enable learners to accomplish particular tasks, such as converse appropriately with foreign business clients, make travel reservations, or order a pizza from Domino's. This approach to language education is frequently called English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a protest movement, of sorts, within ELT against other, less directed, forms of language instruction that have so far failed to produce satisfactory results — particularly in Japan.

Now, however, as more and more Japanese schools begin to reevaluate their writing courses interest in ESP among post-secondary schools has increased as educators search for writing instruction that is more relevant to their students' specific academic and professional needs. This paper addresses this interest by offering writing instructors an intelligent plan for developing such a writing program.

Targeting two discourse communities

ESP writing instruction at the post-secondary level is frequently designed to

orient writers to two different discourse communities: (a) a particular academic discourse community and (b) a vocational or professional discourse community. Both discourse groups are socio-rhetorical communities of individuals drawn to one another by common goals and concepts of appropriate behavior and language. Writing curriculum planners must determine if their program should orient their students into one or both of these two possible target communities.

Needs analysis

Most successful ESP writing instruction begins with a thorough analysis of learner needs to direct the development of appropriate content and teaching methods. In most college or university situations, the following two Needs Analysis Guides would be sufficient to assist a writing instructor in assessing student needs.

Guide for assessing academic writing needs

1. English writing will be required of my students in what courses? Introduction to Western Philosophy? Contemporary American Literature? Senior Seminar?
2. What written English genres will be required in these courses? Essay exam? Book review? Public speech? Technical report? Annotated bibliography?
3. What will be valued by course instructors in these genres? Originality of opinion? Skillful use of citations? Correct use of punctuation? Error-free grammar?
4. What information and experience must be provided in my English writing course that will enable my students to perform these writing tasks successfully? Rules of punctuation? Strategies of argumentation? Examples of good citations?
5. What are the learning preferences of my students? Weekly Grammar quizzes? Journal writing? Use of HTML?
6. How will I evaluate student performance? Holistically evaluated writing portfolios? Grammar exams?
7. How will I evaluate program success? Pre-/post-testing? TOEFL or TOEIC? Teacher evaluations by students? Feedback from other instructors who assign English writing in their content courses?
8. What will I improve the next time I teach this writing course? Order of presentation? Introduction of another genre?

Guide for assessing vocational/professional writing needs

Usually, preparing language learners to participate successfully in the written English discourse of their vocation or profession is the main concern of most ESP writing instruction. In order to prepare learners for the language tasks that will be required of them in their work, it is useful for an ESP writing instructor to obtain the following information:

1. There must be some specific and accurate information about the culture of the students' target field(s) of study. Students need to know about the primary goals of their profession, the primary activities that its members engage in to accomplish these goals, and the values and cultural conventions that govern professional activities. ESP writing instruction will not be motivating nor its purpose properly understood if students do not have general knowledge of the normal activities in their target discipline. This information can be provided by professors from the students' subject area(s), by ESP writing professors, or by both in some sort of cooperative effort. Inviting scientists or engineers to class to talk about their profession, their work, and their writing is one effective way to accomplish this.

2. In addition to some general knowledge about their field and how writing fits into the scheme of things, students need to know about the written English discourse that is uniquely characteristic of their target discipline. This should include information on the profession's genres and sub-genres, audience, purposes, print and electronic formats, high-frequency grammatical forms, high-frequency vocabulary, mechanics, efficient means of writing and revision,

dissemination factors, cultural/professional taboo, and so forth. A graphical representation of the genres and their features, along with many good examples, can be very useful to help students understand both linguistic detail as well as rhetorical purpose.

3. An ESP writing course must consist of appropriate instructional activities that are tailored to the specific language levels and personal characteristics of the learners. These activities must enable students to learn *about* the writing that is practiced in their discipline as well as enable them to learn *how to produce* this type of writing. Activities that allow students to produce writing in situations that approximate those of professionals are likely to be more effective. Imitative exercises without rhetorical contexts generally bore young writers and don't give them exposure to all the aspects of writing they will encounter in their careers. Team teaching with a content professor in the students' subject area can often provide one good solution to this problem.

ESP Research

How do teachers determine their students' academic and vocational/professional writing needs? They must gather most of the information they need on their own or in cooperation with other writing teachers serving the same kind of student population. Information about the students' entry level English, knowledge of academic and vocational/professional writing, and personal learning preferences may be obtained by employing pretests, student questionnaires, and student interviews.

Information about the vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, mechanics, and genre conventions of the target texts may be obtained by distributing and analyzing faculty questionnaires, conducting faculty interviews, distributing and analyzing vocational/professional questionnaires, conducting vocational/professional interviews, collecting genuine writing samples for analysis (e.g. length, formatting, use of punctuation and mechanics, use of active/passive constructions, use of personal pronouns, organization of information, title and subtitling, what constitutes proof or evidence, level of detail, useful vocabulary, etc.), conducting case studies of successful student and/or professional writers, analyzing academic and/or disciplinary texts for high frequency vocabulary and grammatical constructions, and surveying ESP literature for useful research.

ESP writing research and instruction at the University of Aizu

In order to illustrate ESP writing research and instruction, I would like to briefly outline some of the research we have been conducting at the University of Aizu to create effective ESP writing courses for our students in the computer sciences.

Source of Data

In the first stage of research, the primary source of data about written English discourse in computer science has been our university's computer faculty of approximately 87 members from 20 different nations. Surveys and short follow-up interviews were conducted with twenty-five members of the faculty, detailed case studies were conducted with two members of the faculty (one native and one non-native English writer), and additional information was gathered through surveys of professional literature in computer science along with computer-assisted analyses of English vocabulary and grammatical constructions appearing most frequently in computer science discourse. (See Orr, 1995b; Orr, Christianson, Goetze, & Okawara, 1995.)

Some of the information we gathered that is of particular use to our ESP writing program will be explained in the rest of this paper.

Definition of Computer Science

To assist our writing teachers and students in understanding the essence of computer science, we discovered that the Association of Computing Machinery (ACM), one of the main professional organizations for computer scientists, had a very clear description of the field. According to the ACM, *Computer science is the systematic study of algorithmic processes that describe and*

transform information — the theory, analysis, design, efficiency, implementation, and application. The fundamental question underlying all computer science is "What can be efficiently automated?" (Denning, 1988)

Writing in Computer Science

When we looked at all the English writing that takes place in the computer profession, we found roughly twenty-two different kinds of writing. In broad terms, these could be categorized according to two general functions: (a) to manipulate *information* and (b) to manipulate *resources*. All otherfunctions were simply small pragmatic steps toward one of these two larger goals.

To help students understand how these genres functioned more specifically within the profession, we developed a chart that grouped writing under four main categories and four sub-categories.

1. Storage-Directed Writing
   Purpose: to manage the mental/physical storage of information
   a) notational support (e.g. notes in the margins of journal articles or conference proceedings, etc.)
   b) organizational support (e.g. lists of information sources, facts, formulas, etc.)

The role of writing in this aspect of professional work is often overlooked, and yet it is an important one, particularly in computer science where reading input is so immense. In our investigation of 25 computer scientists in our Department of Computer Hardware and Department of Computer Software, for example, "faculty members claimed they read anywhere from 1,030 to 25,500 pages of professional literature1 each year, with the average being 5,558 pages." Native English speakers read on average 10,667 pages of profession-related English and non-native English speakers from 12 other language groups read 3,308 pages of English on average (Orr, 1995b, p. 21). With such a tremendous load of information for the human brain to process, clever writing and organizational strategies must be employed to manage this input and make it readily accessible when needed.

2. Process-Directed Writing
   Purpose: to facilitate the information creation process (e.g. diagrams and mathematical formulas annotated with notes and memos)

3. Input-Directed Writing
   Purpose: to obtain information, approval, assistance, resources (e.g. stand-alone e-mail questions and requests, proposals, calls for papers)

4. Output-Directed Writing
   Purpose: to disseminate information to (re)define and/or advance the profession and its membership or to contribute to the profession's knowledge base
   a) community-building writing (e.g. research lab home pages, biographical sketches, letters from an editor or SIG [Special Interest Group] chairperson)
   b) knowledge-building writing (e.g. technical reports, conference papers/proceedings, journal articles)

For more detailed descriptions and models of professional writing practices in the computer sciences, see Orr, 1995b.

To help orient computer science students to the writing characteristics of computer science, it is best to prioritize information according to immediate need and/or frequency of use. The English writing instruction that is covered in freshman Composition 1 and 2 at the University of Aizu, for example, consists of the following:

Genres selected for instruction (Freshman Composition)

- digital dialog
  - simple two-person exchanges (simple questions and answers)
  - complex multi-person exchanges (well-anchored discussion)
- object descriptions
  - short autobiographical sketches (1-3 sentences)
  - longer autobiographical sketches (1-3 paragraphs)
  - electrical product description (e.g., laptop computer)

- narratives
  - short, reflective accounts of past events
- process descriptions
  - directions on how to perform a particular computer function (e.g. add sound to a Web page)
  - explanation of how something works (e.g. a computer mouse)
- abstracts and bibliographies
  - abstract of a longer piece of writing in the computer sciences
  - annotated bibliography

More complex genres are covered in Technical Writing 1 and 2, Advanced Writing, and Research Methods, and applied in computer science courses, graduation research, and in the graduate school scheduled to open April 1, 1997.

Language Features

In addition to genre, an ESP writing course should also direct some specific attention to vocabulary and grammar items frequently employed in computer science discourse. Here are a few items that we address when teaching computer science students:

Specialist Computer Science vocabulary
areal density, benchmark, command queuing, femtosecond, hypercube, LISP, synchro-stratum, thermionic, Unicode, wafer, WAIS.2

Non-specialist Computer Science vocabulary
computer screen, click, delete, e-mail, file, font, key, keyboard, highlight, Internet, menu, mouse, printer, scan, Web page, window, World Wide Web (vs. Worldwide Web).3

High frequency General English vocabulary
analysis, application, device, efficient, human, management, perform, problem, project, research, results, such, time, use, verify, which4

High frequency or problematic grammatical features

- Adjective Clauses Example: This paper discusses some general requirements for CASE *tools which support object-oriental software development*.
- Passives Example: In this paper, a model of a heterostructure bipolar transistor incorporating an RT collector structure *is developed and discussed*.
- Anthropomorphization (inanimate subjects with active verbs) Example: computers *perform*, the screen *shows*, a computer program *instructs*, this paper *presents*5

For those interested in viewing specific writing course syllabi, homework assignments, and instruction material used at the University of Aizu, point your favorite Web browser at the Center for Language Research on the University of Aizu campus. Here some of our faculty have begun putting courseware and research papers on WWW to provide more efficient access.
<http://www.u-aizu.ac.jp/public/www/labs/clrs/welcome.html\#toc>

Conclusion

When language learners complete their high school education, their energies are no longer absorbed by entrance exam preparation and they are now free to develop their academic and career-related writing skills. Universities, colleges and language schools are ideal sites for this kind of training. If writing instructors at these institutions can provide effective ESP writing instruction to meet the genuine academic and disciplinary writing needs of their students, then NNSs will enjoy more opportunities to participate in the English discourse of their respective academic and vocational or professional communities.

Notes

1. Professional literature refers to all print and digital profession-related text such as journal articles, calls for papers, conference proceedings, technical reports, e-mail correspondence with other researchers, Internet discussion on computer science lists, instruction manuals, Web pages, books, product catalogues, etc.
2. This vocabulary is primarily taught by computer scientists who cover this

material in computer science courses. Language faculty teach the English used in the definitions and explanations of these specialist terms.
3. This vocabulary is taught by language teachers.
4. For more detailed research on vocabulary selection, see Orr, T., Christianson, K., Goetze, C., & Okawara, H., 1995.
5. Anthropomorphization seems to be especially problematic for Japanese. See Kojima, S., & Kojima, K., 1978.

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Writing and Peer Feedback Tasks

Guy Kellogg & L. Scott Rogstad
Kanazawa Institute of Technology

Introduction

The language lesson in its present context represents the evolution of both curriculum and syllabus design. Juxtaposed to this natural change over time in foreign and second language course design and teaching, is the relationship of methodology to lesson planning, and more specifically, to the management of the lesson. Traditionally, according to Nunan (1989), a major difference between syllabus design and methodology is that the former tackles grading and content whereas the latter deals with activities and their sequences (p. 15). However, current trends in second and foreign language teaching, including the communicative language teaching approaches emerging in the late 1970s (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), encourage integration of syllabus design and methodology, thereby emphasizing evaluation and content from lesson to lesson.

The language lesson, as described by Prabhu, is "a unit in a planned curricular sequence, an instance of teaching method in operation, a patterned social activity, and an encounter between human personalities" (1992, p. 225).

Prabhu's main concerns are that the language lesson be understood as a relatively complicated event in the classroom and that as such, teachers should explore elements of the event, its routines, and speculate on outcomes. In short,

> teachers need to be theorists — not in the sense of being able to wield the apparatus of scholarship or the

> skills of academic argument, but in the sense of operating with an active concept of the cause-effect relationship between teaching and learning. (Prabhu, 1992, p. 239)

From this perspective, language teaching has arrived at a point where teacher and learner roles have necessarily changed. Traditionally, the teacher has been seen as an important (and in some cases the only) source of reference — the disseminator of knowledge. Similarly, student behavior has been described as imitative and confined. At present, what is seen is the teacher facilitating classroom interactions and the students assuming more responsibility for their learning. This is not to say that the teacher has relinquished responsibility for teaching and learning, but rather that the nature of responsibility has changed. The teacher, as a facilitator/guide, must focus more on creatively planning and adapting activities and less on controlling and monitoring student output.

In order to frame the description of peer writing activities which are central to this paper, it is helpful to return to the concept of "theory" as originally referenced here to Prabhu, and now placed in context with reference to classroom activities, namely the specific peer and teacher writing tasks described in the Procedures and Outcomes section of this paper.

> For classroom activities to be considered more than protective routines, it is minimally necessary for teachers to be operating with their own beliefs about the pedagogic value of those activities — with their own notions or theories of how learning comes about and how the teaching that is done is bringing it about. (Prabhu, 1992, p. 237)

As one such example of the idea that teachers need to have their "own beliefs" about teaching and classroom activities, consider the principle of awareness. In both the peer and teacher feedback components of the writing activities described in the Procedures and Outcomes section of this paper, a central premise is that awareness plays an important role in the learning of language in the classroom. Awareness is a type of consciousness described by Schmidt (1994) in van Lier (1996, p. 70) which refers to knowledge of rules. This type of knowledge is important for students involved in providing peer feedback and revising written work.

Background

The setting for this series of activities is a technological university with approximately 8,000 undergraduate students where languages are not offered as majors. First and second year students take a series of required English courses based on structural-functional syllabi and elective courses in English and German. The English courses average between 35 to 40 students per class, so each teacher has approximately 180 students per term. There are three 9- to 10-week terms as opposed to the two 14-week terms common at many universities. Therefore the amount of time the teachers have to evaluate writing assignments and provide feedback and guidance is somewhat short. When a student submits a writing assignment, typically the teacher evaluates it, then returns it to the student with a grade and some feedback, but often the feedback in the current structural-functional syllabus is not of a type which would encourage the student to make revisions. If the grade does not satisfy the student, he or she will perhaps try harder for a higher one on the next paper, but what will he or she do differently in that paper? In the interest of encouraging students to proofread their papers before turning them in, a decision was made to elaborate the writing process.

Part of this process involves looking at the various classroom roles. There are two main sets of roles: the teacher-student set of roles and the student-student set. The teacher-student set of roles often tends to be based on authority on the part of the teacher and subordination on the part of the student. Students do what the teacher says not because it is a good idea or will help them, but because the teacher is the authority figure in the classroom. After enduring this kind of role set for a number of years, many students rebel against it without thinking about the content.

The student-student set of roles, on the

other hand, tends to be based on a common enemy: English as a Foreign Language. It is this feeling of "being in the same boat as the other students" that we as teachers can use in our classrooms. Tasks can be designed that have both affective outcomes, which modify students' feelings regarding such things as self- image, self-worth and motivation, and constructive outcomes, the kinds of things that cause the writer to make changes in a composition.

Procedures and Outcomes

The data for the writing activities consist of original paragraph—level writing assignment submissions from eight students; student responses to a peer feedback worksheet; three to five subsequent revisions of the original paragraph; and correction symbols marked on the revised paragraphs by the teacher. These data were collected from an elective writing course, based on a process-oriented syllabus being offered for the first time in the university's history.

The original assignment to be submitted for evaluation was to write a simple listing paragraph (typed, containing the three parts of a paragraph and using a relatively uncomplicated level of English) consistent with the model in the textbook. The students were not informed that they would later be required to give peer feedback and rewrite their paragraphs. It should be noted here that this writing assignment, typical of the syllabus, is also typical of assignments given in the required (structural–functional syllabi) courses, save that the elective class student would additionally be required to provide peer feedback and rewrite the assignment.

Therefore, the students in the elective class received a peer feedback worksheet to be completed during class. Each student received another student's paper and went through the worksheet, answering the various questions. Many of the questions deal with constructive feedback, i.e. understanding of the main idea, supporting information, and vocabulary. The final question, on the other hand, is an affective item; the respondent gives the writer feedback on aspects enjoyed and asks the writer questions about the content of the paragraph (see Appendix).

Feedback responses to the various questions differed in length among respondents. Possible changes to titles, topic sentences, and conclusion sentences were given as feedback. Unknown vocabulary was written down and although the students were encouraged to write definitions in English, some of them were in Japanese. Occasionally, meanings were omitted because the word in question was ". . . not in my dictionary." Sentences not understood were also written down to encourage the original writer to make them clearer. Paragraph length was addressed with some respondents looking simply at the number of words and others at the content of the paragraph. Paragraph form and the existence of the three main paragraph parts were also checked.

After the feedback responses were read by the original writer, the second version of the paragraph was written. New information often appeared coinciding with the classmate's feedback; sometimes, even though there was no direct response about a particular aspect of the paragraph, it was evident that the writer had taken a second look at it and made changes. Up to that point the students had given each other feedback about their paragraphs and rewritten them based on that feedback.

The teacher then entered the process with the use of correction symbols, in order to indicate to the student some of the more prominent errors. Using the symbols, which the students also had for reference, the teacher was able to quickly identify such things as grammar or spelling mistakes, inappropriate vocabulary, and lack of clarity. Each writer then produced the third version of the paragraph, making changes based on the correction symbols; some of the changes made were satisfactory, but some were not. For the third and subsequent versions, the students were encouraged to focus on micro-level corrections. The audience for the composition was thus shifted from peer to teacher, though many students continued to express interest in their peers' revised papers. The fourth and fifth versions of this composition repeated the cycle of teacher highlighting errors and student fixing them as best as possible; some compositions required fewer correction cycles than others. With each writing assignment the initial

student-to-student feedback acted as a kind of "buffer" for the subsequent teacher-to-student correction which occurred later in the process.

Discussion

Feedback responses to the various questions differed in length among respondents, perhaps as a result of the writers' or respondents' levels of English or differences in what was perceived to be an "appropriate response." Noteworthy is that a student who produced a short paragraph (several typed lines) could find him or herself confronted with a full page and a half of constructive and affective feedback. Since this feedback came from a peer, it could be argued that the student's awareness was raised, as evidenced by the macro-level changes made in subsequent versions, specifically the addition of information, details, examples, and conclusion sentences, as opposed to mere spelling corrections and grammatical changes.

Occasionally, meanings were omitted from the item on the peer feedback worksheet requiring the respondent to indicate unfamiliar vocabulary because the word in question was "... not in my dictionary," due either to a spelling error or an inadequacy of the respondent's dictionary. This too, however, raised awareness among students — it bothered them that a peer could point to a word and make the logical (albeit limited) argument that if the word was not in the dictionary, it could not possibly be English! The original writers then naturally shifted their focus back and forth from meaning to form in order to revise their writing for their peers.

It was also found that compositions written at the beginning of a term required more correction cycles than those submitted later; perhaps the students changed the way they produced first drafts of written work. In their previous writing experience at the university, it was not explicit that a teacher would require them to produce original written work which would be subsequently revised and rewritten. In an effort to save time and rewrites, therefore, the students learned to be more aware, to identify, notice, and focus on both the macro-level guidelines of the assignment as well as the micro-level detailed types of errors indicated to them with correction symbols such as those used in the first assignment.

The affective item at the end of the peer feedback worksheet, which asks the respondent to indicate which two aspects he or she liked about the paragraph and why, as well as to ask two intelligent questions about the content of the composition, often served a dual purpose. First, the writer could be flattered and/or motivated by the apparent "interest" taken by the respondent. Second, the questions often provided a springboard for new information and details which the writer could then include in a rewrite.

In conclusion, we feel that by investigating a relatively narrow aspect of our own teaching — namely, the level of awareness of our students — we have been able to create more meaningful communicative activities for the writing classroom. Although we have not designed a study to prove the effectiveness of a specified methodology on the language acquisition for a group of learners, we do feel that we have participated in the evolution of language teaching and in the exploration of our own beliefs on pedagogy as described by Prabhu's teaching and learning cause-effect relationship.

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Appendix

Peer Feedback Worksheet

Write your answers in sentences. Use your own A-4 paper.

1. Whose report are you reading? What is his/her class and number?

2. Read the title and/or the first sentence of the report and write it down.
   What do you think the report will be about?

3. Read the whole report.
   Write a new title for this report.
   What is the main idea of this report?

4. Read the report again and make a table like the one on page 8 of your textbook.

5. Write down the words from this report that are new for you.
   Write down their meanings.

6. Write down the sentences from the report that you cannot understand.
   After each sentence, write one sentence to explain why you cannot understand the sentence.

7. Write down the conclusion sentence.
   Now, read the report again and write a new conclusion sentence.
   What did you change? Why did you change it?

8. Do you think that this report is long enough?
   Why? / Why not?

9. Is the report indented? Is the report in paragraph form?
   Is there a topic sentence, some body sentences and a conclusion sentence?

10. Write a short note to the classmate who wrote this report. Tell him/her two things that you really liked about his/her report. Also, tell him/her why you liked those two things. Then, write down two intelligent questions that you have about his/her report.

Conversation Strategies, Timed Practice, and Noticing in Large Oral Communication Classes

Tom Kenny
Nanzan University

Introduction

Teachers who face the task of teaching large classes of rather poorly motivated non-language majors often sacrifice any hope of actually improving their students' oral abilities for the more realistic goals of keeping students busy in class and maintaining smooth classroom management. We often joke that large classes require not teaching, but "crowd control." The weekly conversation activity (my students have named it "the easy English activity") described in this paper focuses on this problem by addressing and providing solutions for these key questions:

- What kind of oral English practice will engage these students?
- Once motivated, what is an effective way to keep students focused on the target language?
- How can students best learn from their oral practice?

The activity itself has three main components (see figure 1): Students practice conversation strategies; they practice in timed segments that keep them focused on the task; and the practice is followed by a period of reflection wherein they record language used in their conversation. The activity is part of a larger framework that also includes teacher interaction:

The activity and post activity are repeated 4 - 7 times a lesson, depending on how long each conversation lasts. Students stand in groups of eight, changing partners each time. Classes meet weekly for ninety minutes; by the end of the semester, approximately 45 -55 minutes is spent on this activity. In total, students will have spent more than half of the class devoted to this activity.

The following is a closer examination of the three major components of the activity: conversation strategies, timed practice, and noticing.

Conversation strategies

In recent years, more and more course books are including conversation strategies (CS) as a part of their regular units (Keller and Warner, 1988; Rost and McGannon, 1993; Kehe and Kehe, 1994). Conversation strategies are handy, common lexical phrases used to show interest, show agreement, stall for time, clarify input and output, ask for repetition, summarize, negotiate meaning, etc. (see figure 2). Conversation strategies in this sense overlap with, but differ from *communication strategies* in that the latter concern managing the problems that arise in the production & comprehension of L2 speech (Dörnyei and Scott, in press), while the former is regarded as a grouping of lexical items from which teachers can draw words and phrases that will facilitate conversation. For example, opening gambits like "How's it going?" and "What's new?" rightly belong in the category of conversation strategies; communication strategies like *feigning understanding* and *mumbling* clearly do not, and it would be a strange teacher indeed who might encourage students to master them.

The underlying assumption in the teaching of CS is that university-level students have enough English grammar and

pre-activity
conversation strategy controlled practice (if applicable)
preparation of topic question/opinions/vocabulary (outside of class)
conversation strategy warm-up

activity
free practice of CS / questions / vocabulary
noticing during timed conversation
reflection after conversation

post-activity
teacher wrap-up

Figure 1 Activity Sequence

Me too! Me neither! For example?? Never mind!!

Hmm...Let me see That's a difficult question!

How about you? Just a moment, please!
How's it going? Really? That's great!
What's new? Oh yeah? That's too bad!

Nice talking with you! You too! You're kidding!!
See ya later! I'm jealous!

Sounds nice/interesting/fun/boring!

Figure 2 Examples of conversation strategies

vocabulary to have rudimentary conversations on simple topics; what they really need are the interactional phrases that will transform those simple "question-answer, question-answer" into real conversations. Since so much of the language native speakers use on a daily basis is interactional (i.e. used to maintain relationships) rather than transactional (functions to achieve some purpose) (Brown and Yule, 1983), then students should learn as much interactional language as possible. Furthermore, because interactional language is highly ritualized, consisting of routine formulas and pre-fabricated language chunks (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992), they can be easy for students to remember. However, they are not especially easy to teach, because many CS (e. g. message abandonment) do not lend themselves easily to pairwork exercises or substitution drill dialogues.

What do students think about conversation strategies? Almost all students (95%) responded that using CS improves their conversations; in fact, 88% said they want to learn more strategies. About two-thirds also claimed that they had never really used CS before the class. Students seem to like them not only because they are relatively short strings that are easy to produce and remember, but also because

they are very powerful. Even a limited number of CS make their conversations more natural, giving students confidence as they start on the road to pragmatic fluency.

Timed practice

In the activity, conversation strategies are practiced in conversations of up to five minutes in length where the student's goal is to use the CS as much as possible. Among the first CS taught are openers and closers that students can use to begin and end their conversation; timed practice tells them when to begin and end. Students speak until they hear the signal from the stopwatch and then they finish quickly. Conversations start at one to two minutes and get longer every week until students are speaking in five minute conversations with no pauses by the end of the semester. (This goal is explicitly stated for them in the first lesson.)

From a classroom management perspective, timed conversation has several benefits. First, all students start and finish at the same time -- this way, more skilled students can't finish the activity faster than weaker students, a common problem with learners practicing dialogs or information gap exercises. Next, it's easy to plan lessons (e. g. 8 conversations @ 4 minutes = 45 minutes of a lesson, including reflection periods (discussed below)). And since a stopwatch beeper tells students when to end, there's no talking over a roomful of students to quiet them down.

The greatest benefit of using timed practice is that it keeps learners speaking in an "English only" environment. Naturally, if students have a limited time in which to perform a task, they tend to remain focused on it. But when the pressure of a timer is added, the task assumes an air of excitement and performance as well. The framework of timed conversation creates a stage; the partners are the players, and the play is English.

How many learners spoke "English only" during timed conversation practice? Sixty-three percent said that they did. Additionally, learners were asked to speculate about how much English they might speak if they didn't converse within the timed practice framework; an overwhelming 81% of respondents said they would probably speak more Japanese if the speaking activity were more open-ended. This may be because with timed conversation, learners have the psychological advantage of knowing that the conversation will end soon, and when it's finished, they can take refuge in their native tongue for a moment. With more open-ended practice, on the other hand, students don't know when that moment of respite will come and are perhaps more likely to launch into their native language.

Noticing

Armed with conversation strategies, practiced in timed conversations, students can talk together and stay in an "English only" environment. Despite using well-formed CS, however, learners often produce grammatically ill-formed utterances. The tacit assumption held by many university-level EFL teachers in Japan is that most of the non-language majors in their oversized classes have reached a level of grammatical accuracy that most teachers can do little to improve upon. Student attitude doesn't help the cause for grammar either and may support this assumption. Of 213 respondents, 56% said they did not want to learn more grammar. In an attempt to discern attitudes toward the teaching of fluency vs. accuracy, students were asked "Is practicing CS more important than practicing grammar?" An overwhelming ninety percent answered "Yes." This is admittedly a broad question that deserves qualification and further study, but at the very least, such a response indicates a rejection of the explicit practice of grammar. Grammatical accuracy, however, is undeniably important; even the most fast-talking L2 learner can be judged non-fluent when too many errors obfuscate the message (Schmidt, 1992).

The cognitive act of *noticing* (Schmidt & Frota 1986; Swain, 1995; Ellis, 1994) can help students improve grammatical accuracy, as well as vocabulary and conversation strategy use. When students are trained to notice the language they use and the language their partners use, it adds a new dimension of learning to every conversation they have. Practice becomes *goal-oriented* speaking: "I'll practice speaking & try to find something I say that's wrong or listen for something I can steal from my partner."

An example will illustrate the role of noticing in the activity. A student practices

CS during a timed conversation. Her goal is to notice the strategies used by her partner. During the timed practice, her partner says "That's a difficult question." The student notices the new language feature, compares it with her present output and realizes that she never uses that CS. She judges it a good feature to remember and retains it until she can write it down after the conversation. Ellis (1994) calls this *intake*, a language feature that is noticed and held in temporary memory which the learner can use as output later. The noticing activity is not complete, however, until the intake is recorded during a reflection period following the timed conversation. Following this, the teacher can elicit intake from students to wrap-up before starting the activity again.

Asking low-level students to practice conversation and be conscious of the language used can be a cognitively demanding task, one that requires some training. Early in the semester, students are trained to report on the content of their partners' speech (e. g. "Yuki wants to see *Independence Day*") then shift to noticing the form of the output ("She said *incredibly* expensive about tickets. It's a new word!"). Students practice noticing CS and vocabulary items before working up to grammar structures. If learners are reminded of certain grammatical structures relevant to weekly conversation topics ("If I have money, I'll go to the movies"), the reminders make the structure salient enough to make noticing possible and an effective tool for improving accuracy.

What do students think about noticing? Most said it was difficult, but also said it became easier with practice. Eighty-two percent felt noticing helped them to see what language they used, and 76% reported that it helped them learn language from their partners. An early assumption in the creation of the activity was that it would be cognitively less demanding on learners to notice language features in their own output rather than in their partners' output. The figures above seem to support that assumption, as do the results of the question "Was it easier to remember the language you used than the language your partner used?" (see figure 3). As much as they found noticing to be helpful, however, they probably did not find it as much fun as speaking practice; two-thirds of the students said they would rather have another conversation instead of noticing between conversations.

Question		Yes	Yes, some-what	Not really	No
1.	CS makes my conversations better	57.7%	37.1%	4.7%	.5%
2.	I used CS before this class	6.1	25.4	43.2	25.4
3.	Practicing CS is more important than practicing grammar	53.8	36.7	8.6	1.0
4.	I wanted to learn more CS	49.3	38.5	11.7	.5
5.	I wanted to learn more grammar	16.9	26.8	39.4	16.9
6.	Practicing CS is more important than practicing grammar	53.8	36.7	8.6	1.0
7.	Timed practice is a good way to practice conversation	48.6	39.6	9.9	1.9
8.	I spoke "English only" during timed practice	18.4	45.3	30.7	5.7
9.	If we didn't do timed practice, I might speak more Japanese	48.8	32.9	16.9	1.4
10.	Noticing was difficult	27.4	46.2	21.7	4.7
11.	Noticing became easier by the end of the semester	16.3	56.5	24.9	2.4
12.	It was easier to remember the language I used more than the language my partner used	29.5	40.0	26.7	3.8
13.	Noticing helped me to understand what language I used often and what language I didn't use	28.2	53.6	13.9	4.3
14.	Noticing helped me to learn language from my partners	29.0	46.2	18.6	6.2
15.	I want to have another conversation instead of noticing between conversations	21.9	43.8	31.4	2.9
16.	My conversation has improved because of this class	31.3	55.9	11.8	.9
17.	I enjoy English more than before	35.1	48.8	14.2	1.9
18.	I worked hard to improve my conversations	21.9	52.9	25.2	1.9
19.	For my conversation grade I should get ...	A 17.2%	B 52.0	C 27.5	F 2.0

Figure 3: Questionnaire results

Conclusion

A problem with noticing is that when students are more or less at the same low level, there's not a very wide gap between learners. It's unlikely that partners can introduce new vocabulary or grammatical patterns unless they prepare for it outside of class. There is also some question about the benefit of keeping language features in short-term memory between noticing and the reflection period. Why can't students quickly jot down the intake during the conversation? For fluency activities to work though, students need to interact with each other, not with pens and paper. Nonetheless, it is doubtful that some learners have much to gain by practicing this cognitive task. Other problems include students who never get past reporting partners' content, rather than form, and students who notice the same things over and over. But these are problems with student behavior, not with noticing itself.

Despite these problems, the activity engages and motivates learners, improves fluency, but doesn't ignore accuracy. Students enjoy using conversation strategies; timed practice enhances classroom management and keeps students in "English only." Noticing makes learners aware of their mistakes and successes, and helps them learn from their partners. Overall, students (87%) felt that the activity improved their English conversation ability, and 84% said they enjoyed English more than before because of the class.

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Amaterasu and the power of dance in the classroom.

David Bell
Nagoya University of Commerce and Business Administration

One day, Amaterasu, the goddess of light, retired to a cave in anger, thus plunging the world into darkness. In order to lure her out, another goddess mounted an overturned tub, bared her body and danced vigorously while the other gods sang and beat time. Intrigued by the laughter and shouting, Amaterasu came out and joined them, thus ending her self-imposed exile and bringing light back to the world. The gods, having discovered the pleasure of performing and watching dance, passed their accomplishment on to man. *(Japanese myth)*

Can the power of dance have a similar enlightening effect in the language classroom? Although this gift from the gods is pervasive in everyday life, we tend to think that dance has little pedagogical significance. But the imaginative use of dance can provide solutions for seemingly intractable pedagogical problems and provide new dimensions for language learning both in and out of the classroom.

"The wall of silence"

Most new EFL teachers in the Japanese classroom are greeted by the "the wall of silence," a reluctance to speak, conditioned by educational and cultural norms against immodesty of the tongue (Wierzbicka, 1994). Prohibitions against verbal immodesty are captured in the Japanese proverb, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down." Naturally, for the teacher schooled in the communicative approach, student reluctance to speak is a major challenge.

One way of confronting this challenge is to meet the students half-way, what Anderson (1992) calls "blending." Blending requires the teacher to discover the circumstances in which students are comfortable talking and then begin to turn those circumstances into communicative language practice. So, for example, knowing that students will happily read scripted dialogues to each other allows the use of various drama techniques which exploit mood and gesture, etc. My own particular approach to reconciling a communicative approach with the students' reluctance to communicate begins by exploiting their liking for choral drills.

Choral drills and the communicative approach

It is somewhat paradoxical that the individually silent student can be forthcoming when asked to participate in a choral drill. Yet, in the choral drill, it is the silent who may be considered "the nail that sticks up." But drilling and the communicative approach are not easy bedfellows. Choral drilling still remains a technique in the communicative classroom but one that is used sparingly to give students functional control of a new language item. The communicative approach could never countenance the prominence of the drill in the Audio Lingual Method, where it was considered the key technique for instilling good language habits. And even though attempts have been made to develop communicative drills, these have tended to be more semi-controlled pair-work activities rather than

choral (Walz, 1989).

However, a place can be found for choral drilling in the communicative approach if we take a broader view of the nature of communication. Several writers have described language in terms of functions, of which communication is just one. For Jakobson (1987), the poetic function of language is distinguished by the way words are selected and combined according to different axes, what he called the "projection principle." In the slogan, "I like like," like has been selected from the vertical or paradigmatic axis by virtue of its ability to combine with I and lke to form a phonetic patterning on the syntagmatic or horizontal axis. First language acquisition is replete with examples of the poetic function in the form of rhymes, songs and chants. And this delight in the poetic function carries over to our adult lives as we spontaneously sing a few lines of a song, mimic an advertising jingle, or break out into a sports chant. The success of Carolyn Graham's (1978) infectious jazz chants is essentially due to their appeal to our poetic and rhythmic sensibilities.

But jazz chants are also communicative in ways not immediately understood by the notion of communication. Watching a Graham demonstration is watching performance art and any teacher who similarly performs in the classroom a song, a drawing, a story, or a mime, etc., will be aware of the heightened level engagement on the part of the student. Is this communication? Well, it certainly feels like it, especially if we can get our students to actively participate in the performance. If you have ever been to a dance class, you will know that learning a dance can be an exhausting process of watching a demonstration, listening to instructions, trying it out yourself, getting feedback, reflecting on the experience, seeking clarification, and then demonstrating that you have understood, and so on. As Widdowson (1984) has argued, the aim of the communicative process is to negotiate meaning by working towards a satisfactory convergence of worlds among interlocutors so that understanding can be achieved. And of course understanding can be demonstrated by actions as well as words.

The importance of body movement in the language classroom

But research in cognitive style and non-verbal communication points to more substantive reasons why dance should be part of a language class. Gardner (1993) not only suggests that we are possessed of "multiple intelligences" but also that these intelligences may constitute preferred personalized learning styles. Asher's Total Physical Response (1977) is one attempt to exploit the powerful connections in memory created by combining language and actions. Furthermore, an increasing number of studies underline the importance of the body and movement in language. For example, Kendon (1979) has documented the synchronization of gesture and speech, Bolinger (1986) has highlighted the connection between body movement and intonation, and Acton (1984) has argued that breakthroughs in teaching pronunciation can be made through teaching the accompanying gesture/body movement.

Seven reasons to dance

1. Dance in the language classroom provides engaging ways in which students can gain functional control of language by emphasizing phonological chunks, sentence stress and intonation, conversational rhythm, gesture and body movement.
2. Dance and gesture can combine to provide powerful kinesthetic connections for vocabulary development.
3. Dance can be used as a force to unify the community of the classroom and lower affective factors.
4. Dance has a power to transform our notions of classroom space by exploiting hitherto unused working space.
5. Dance helps expose language learners to the culture which underlies the target language. The dances I have used in class draw on a wide range of rhythmic sources: children's skipping or jump rope songs and rhymes, hand-clapping, sports chants, cheer-leading, etc.
6. Dance may allow students to get in touch with those rhythmic resources which played a part in the

acquisition of their first language and make these available for the kinesthetic learning of their second language.

7. And finally, by liberating language learners from the silence and stillness which pervades many language classrooms, dance helps prepare the body (and the mind) for the more cognitive demands of language learning.

The dances

Here are just a few dances which will serve as examples of what can be done when drills are choreographed with dance steps.

1. *Can you/Could you?//Did you/Don't you?*

Introduce each item separately. With your left fist clenched, punch the air and shout [klnyə]. Repeat with the right fist punching the air. Now raise both fists and repeat three times: [klnyə], [klnyə], [klnyə]. The clenched fist punching the air gives the chant the feel of a 'primitive' battle cry and emphasizes the modal/auxiliary plus subject construction as a phonological chunk. At first, students will not be aware that the sound they are yelling is "can you" but they will eventually cotton on. Then introduce the other forms in exactly the same way. Now get the students up in two lines facing each other. One line goes forward two steps, shouting [klnyə] with the left fist clenched on the first step and [klnyə] with the right fist clenched on the second step, and then moves forward more quickly three steps with both fists raised shouting: [klnyə], [klnyə], [klnyə]. The other line then moves forward shouting [dldyə] in exactly the same way. Then the first line goes backward with [kUdyə] and then the second line goes back with [donʧə].

2. *Don't you like my jacket?*
I got it cheap at Macy's.

This dance originated by taking an exuberant Latin type beat, a conga to be exact, and fitting words to it. Here hand-clapping, hip movement and foot-stamping drive what is essentially a substitution drill. The square floor pattern adds a further layer of group cohesion.

Use this dance after introducing clothes vocabulary. You need to use clothes with two syllables to begin with: "jacket," "trousers," "sweater," etc. Each syllable is given equal stress so that students can clap or stamp their feet to the beats conga-style. Use the name of a department store appropriate to the country you are teaching in. But make sure it also is two syllables. In Japan, I use the store "Uny," which is intended to be ironic because its clothes are cheap and functional and it is certainly not a store you would want to brag about. Practice the drill first with students in their seats. They can clap or stamp their feet on both syllables of the last word of each line: jacket [dʒæ-klt], Macy's[me-slz]. Continue as for a substitution drill. You can use other two syllable words: "sweater," jacket," and "trousers," but then as you run out of two syllable words you'll have to "turn" single syllable words into two. Practice this with the class first; for example, shoes [ʃu-uz], shirt [ʃə-ərt], etc.

Now get the students up. You can start of by getting them to do it without movement across the floor by stamping their feet on the two beats of "jacket" and "Macy's." Then put them in a circle - the best place to form a circle is usually around the walls of the classroom . They move forward two beats/steps and then stamp, clap or, better still, wiggle their hips on the two beat clothes words and store name. Now choose about five of your better students and arrange them and yourself into either two rows of three or three rows of two. Put yourself in the first row right position. You are going to move in a square formation and end up in the same position you started at. So, "Don't you like my jacket?" corresponds to one side of the box. "Jacket" marks the corner. Clap, stamp or wiggle on "jacket" and then turn ninety degrees and continue with the next side of the box which is, "I got it cheap at Macy's." Clap, stamp or wiggle on "Macy's" and then turn and continue with, "Don't you like my trousers?," which marks the third side of the box. Turn after "trousers" and do the last side of the box with, "I got them cheap at Macy's." You can continue making more boxes with other substitutions. Space permitting, you could build up this formation drill to the class as a whole. It's

quite a thrill to get a formation team of students to chant and dance in unison and finish together where they started.

3. *Excuse me.*
Can you tell me where the bank is?
Excuse me.
Turn left. Turn right.

Not only single utterances but whole conversational exchanges may serve as material for dance drills. Thus dance drill would ideally accompany a dialogue-build on directions. In this sense, the dance drill is a schematic form of a fuller, more natural conversation. Practice the first two lines with students in their seats. Drill the two-syllable reduced form of excuse me [skyuz mi]. Make it equal stress and pause between each utterance. "Can you tell me where the bank is?" also has equal stress on the last two syllables which also have the most prominent sentence stress. (di di Da di Da di Da Da) Start with "Can you" [kIny˙] and drill it as a phonological chunk as in dance drill 1 and then build up to the full phrase. Get students to clap or snap their fingers on the final two beats of "bank is."

Now get students up in a circle. First practice "Excuse me" [skyuz mi] (two beats). This is done as a kind of shuffle with the weight moving from the left foot to the right foot on each syllable. Now practice, "Can you tell me where the bank is?" (four beats). In contrast, this phrase has much more forward movement finishing with foot stamping/hand clapping on the last two beats "bank is." Now combine "Excuse me" and "Can you tell me where the bank is?" Do each line four times. The first line is a slow shuffling beat while the second is more of a strut. The last line is also quite boisterous. Have students raise their arms above their heads, turning them to the left and the right as they chant, "Turn left. Turn right."(two beats) Now you are ready to put the whole thing together. Remember to repeat each phrase four times. The whole thing now becomes an endless loop.

Conclusion

What I have tried to do in this paper, is to tap into the universal delight in playing with words and movement, and use it for language learning. The real measure of the success of dance in the classroom is whether students will take away from the lesson a beat, a chant and a step, and in their own space and time break out spontaneously into these routines.

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The Process of Revising Tests and Creating Parallel Forms

Alan Hunt
Kansai Gaidai University

David Beglar
Temple University Japan

Introduction

Test reliability is important in both research and the development of educational curricula. Reliable test scores form the basis upon which other statistical tests such as correlations or ANOVAs are calculated; therefore, higher test reliability means subsequent statistical analyses will contain less error. Furthermore, a critical component of any educational curriculum is reliable norm-referenced tests, which can be used for measuring proficiency and making placement decisions. Essentially, understanding how to create more reliable tests provides the basis for teachers to improve their own or others' tests.

In addition to improving reliability, making parallel (statistically equivalent) test forms offers several advantages for researchers and language programs: first, parallel forms give further proof of reliability; in addition, they can be used for pre- and post-testing; and finally, different forms provide increased test security for both diagnostic and proficiency testing.

This paper will discuss how to revise norm-referenced tests to increase reliability and how to create parallel test forms. The authors will illustrate this process using statistics from their research on the original forms of the 2,000 Word Level Test (Nation, 1983; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 1993). In the present study, the original tests were administered to 496 Japanese students whose educational levels ranged from the first year in high school to the third year in university.

Description and purposes of the 2,000 word level tests

Like Nation's and Schmitt's original 2,000 word level vocabulary test forms, the authors' revised test is a matching test that measures the breadth of the learner's vocabulary knowledge (i.e., a basic meaning of a word), but not the depth of that knowledge (Read, 1988). The following is an example of three items from one of the revised tests:

	a. royal
_____ first	b. slow
_____ not public	c. original
_____ all added together	d. sorry
	e. total
	f. private

Drawing from West's General Service List (1953), the answer choices are taken from the first 2,000 high frequency words, while the definitions are written using the first 1,000 high frequency words. Further information about the development of the original tests, which range from the 2,000 to the 10,000 word levels can be found in Nation (1990) and Read (1988).

Both the original and the revised tests would typically be used as criterion-referenced diagnostic tests or as one test in a proficiency test battery. In diagnostic testing, students' scores could be used to estimate the degree to which they knew the 2,000 word level vocabulary. In proficiency testing, the scores could be used as part of a battery of tests for admission to or placement at a certain level in language programs.

The process of testing

Deciding the number of test items and test length

Ideally, many of the initially developed test items will have a strong relationship with the skill being tested (Bachman and Palmer, 1996). Nevertheless, some items will not perform well; therefore, it is extremely important to start with twice as many items as are desired for the final test (Brown, 1996, p. 74). This will guarantee that there will be enough "good" items (defined in the next section) for the final version of the test. In general, highly reliable tests will be made up of approximately 30 or more good items; otherwise, it can be difficult to attain sufficiently high reliability.

Test length is thus an essential component in test reliability. The basic goal of most tests is to attain .90 reliability (Vierra and Pollock, 1992, p. 62). If the consequences for the test-takers are potentially great, for example, acceptance into a university, then longer, even more reliable tests (e.g., .95 reliability) will minimize measurement error and produce fairer, more professional results.

Piloting tests

Once the initial set of items has been written, then the next step is to pilot the test. Piloting allows researchers to work out the logistics of administering their tests; in addition, it provides some preliminary information regarding the quality of test items. When piloting a test, at least 30 subjects should take the test in order to be certain that the results are reliable.

In the present case study, a trial run with over 100 subjects revealed that less than 35 minutes was required to complete all 72 of Nation's and Schmitt's original items, confirming that the test could easily be given within a 50-minute class. The pilot study also pointed out some obviously bad items (e.g., ones which almost no one got correct). In some cases a single distractor accounted for the majority of incorrect answers, suggesting that the distractor had to be revised (see Brown, 1996, p. 70-74 on distractor efficiency analysis). In addition, it was also learned that the English test directions were sometimes not followed; therefore, the directions were translated into Japanese.

Determining item quality

After data have been gathered from piloting the tests, the test items must be analyzed. This requires examining the relationship of individual items to the overall test as well as measuring the difficulty of each item and the ability of individual items to discriminate among high and low scorers.

The first point to consider is the relationship of individual items to the overall test. Ideally, the items and the test should be measuring the same thing. This is determined by checking the correlation results: there should be a positive correlation between each item and all other items on the test. This correlational relationship (R^2) is referred to as the "squared multiple R" by statisticians.

A second expectation is that each item on the test should have a positive correlation with the total test score; this is referred to as either item discrimination or the item-total correlation (see Brown, 1996, p. 66-69). That is, any item that does not correlate well with the total test score is probably measuring something different from the test as a whole.

The following examples from form A of the original 2,000 word level test illustrates the effects of different squared multiple Rs and the item-total correlations on the reliability of the whole test.

Table 1
Statistics for Selected Items from the Original 2,000 Word Level Form A

Item Number	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple R	Reliability if Deleted
1	.42	28	.78
2	.48	29	.77
3	-.14	.05	.82

The closer a correlation figure is to zero, the lower the item's correlation is with the overall test. Clearly, item 3 correlates very poorly with the other items on the test and the total test scores. The negative item correlation value of item 3 indicates that low scoring students correctly answer this item more often than high scoring students; thus it is functioning quite differently from the

rest of the test items and should be eliminated. Retaining item 3 lowers the test's reliability; however, deleting it raises the test's reliability to .82. Thus, items which perform poorly decrease a test's reliability, while those which perform well increase a test's reliability.

The quality of individual test items must also be checked by analyzing their level of difficulty and their ability to discriminate among test-takers. This is usually termed item facility (IF) and is used to check the percentage of students who correctly answer a given item. The formula for determining IF is to take the total number of correct answers for an item and divide that number by the total number of students who took the test. For example, if 100 students take a test and 27 of them get item 1 correct, you divide 27 by 100 and get an IF of .27, which means that 27% of the students got the item correct. In general, the ideal item has an IF near .50.

Closely related to IF is the ability of an item to separate those who performed well from those who performed poorly. This is known as item discrimination (ID). The formula for calculating ID is:

$$ID = IF_{upper} - IF_{lower}$$

For each item, the ID is calculated by subtracting IF_{lower} (the lower third of the group) from IF_{upper} (the upper third of the group). For example, if .60 of the students in the top third correctly answer an item and .20 of the students in the lower third correctly answer the same item, the ID is .60 - .20 = .40. ID statistics can be interpreted using the following criteria (Ebel, 1979, p. 267):

.40 and higher	very good items
.30 to .39	fairly good items subject to improvement
.20 to .29	items in need of improvement
below .19	items which need to be revised or eliminated

In the case of the revised 2,000 word level test the 72 items from the original test were reduced to 54 items by discarding 18 of the original items that had lower item discrimination values. Even though fewer items appear on the revised test, the 54 items of the revised test had a reliability of .95, which equals the reliability of the longer 72 item test.

Test reliability

After having analyzed each item, poorly functioning items should be eliminated or revised, re-piloted, and re-analyzed. At this stage the resulting test or test forms should have approximately 30 items or more each with an ID of .30 or higher. Once this is done, then the reliability of the test forms will need to be analyzed, and the most appropriate type of reliability formula must be determined. In the case of the 2,000 word level tests, in which the creation of parallel forms was one of the primary goals, both equivalent-forms reliability and internal-consistency reliability were considered to be appropriate. These statistical analyses underestimate the test's true reliability, so the results can be trusted as a conservative estimate of reliability (see Brown, 1996, pp. 192-203).

Equivalent-forms reliability requires that two different but equivalent forms of a test be administered to the same group of students. The scores of the two tests are then correlated and the resulting correlation coefficient can be considered as an estimate of the reliability of the test. However, it can be both difficult and time consuming to produce equivalent forms. To illustrate equivalent forms reliability, two forms of the 2,000 word level test were created (see the next section), and the correlation coefficients between the forms were compared and were found to correlate at .89. This is an acceptably strong correlation for two forms of the same test. In this case, the correlation coefficient ($r = .89$) confirms the reliability that was determined by the internal consistency method, which had a reliability coefficient of .90 using the Cronbach alpha reliability formula. Reliability can be determined using any one of several common statistical formulas such as split-half reliability, Cronbach's alpha or Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR-20).

Writing parallel test forms

Once individual items have been analyzed and selected for the final test, then

the creation of parallel forms can begin. As mentioned before, 30 items per form is the ideal number; however, out of the 72 original items on the 2,000 Word Level Tests, 18 were determined to be weak, so the remaining 54 items could at best be made into two 27 item forms. Essentially, the 27 item forms were found to be the best compromise between test length and item quality, since adding more items would not have increased the forms' reliability.

Once it was decided to make two 27 item forms, individual items were then shifted between the forms to bring the means and standard deviations closer to each other.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Revised 2,000 Word Level Tests Forms A and B

	Form A	Form B
Number of Item	27.00	27.00
M	19.90	20.06
SD	6.07	6.04

As table 2 shows, it was possible to create two forms with similar means and standard deviations. However, the next step is to show statistically that the forms are indeed of equivalent difficulty (Henning, 1987, p. 81). Three criteria must be met in order to demonstrate equivalence. First, there must be no significant differences in mean scores when the test forms are administered to the same population. This is established through comparing the means with a dependent t-test an ANOVA (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991, pp. 287-294 and pp. 345-355). In the case of the 2,000 word level test, both forms A and B were used to confirm that the means of the two forms were not significantly different.

Secondly, one must show that there are equivalent variances (variance is standard distribution squared) between the forms when the distributions for the same population are compared with an F-max test (Guilford & Fruchter, 1978, p. 163). Again, the variances for forms A and B of the 2,000 word level test were not significantly different.

Finally, equivalent covariance (interform covariances) must be established by showing that there are no significant differences in correlation coefficients among equivalent forms or among correlation coefficients of equivalent forms with a third, established test (e.g., a concurrent criterion such as TOEFL). The correlation coefficients between forms A and B of the 2,000 word level test and their correlation with the full TOEFL test were found not to differ.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the process of revising tests to improve their reliability and the creation of parallel forms starts with piloting them to make necessary adjustments in logistics, test items, and directions. Then, recalling that the goal is to retain approximately 30 items per test or test form and to attain a reliability of .90 or higher, the item quality needs to be analyzed. Individual items should have an item discrimination value of .30 or higher. At this stage, the reliability of the revised test or test forms should be calculated. Finally, parallel forms can be made, statistically analyzed, and revised in order to achieve equivalence.

Revising tests to raise their reliability and creating parallel forms have practical advantages for researchers and instructors who are involved in curriculum development. It is inevitable that tests, particularly when first developed, will have items which perform poorly and lower the tests' reliability. Out of fairness to the test-takers, it is important to make tests as reliable as possible. Discarding weaker items will not only raise test reliability, but will also reduce the amount of time needed for administering the tests. Finally, the creation of parallel forms allows for pre- and post-testing as well as improved test security by ensuring that test-takers who sit next to each other have different forms.

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Continuous Assessment Facilitated by CAI

Colin Painter
Prefectural University of Kumamoto

This paper illustrates how multimedia computer software facilitated the continuous assessment of oral communication performance in classes of Japanese university students. With learners engaged in tasks, the teacher was able to supply pedagogic assistance and conduct testing. The validity of the criterion-referenced performance testing is covered. Also revealed is the relationship between communicative performance opportunities and proficiency as reflected in performance test scores.

Background

A task involving role-play is one method of having learners demonstrate their communicative performance ability. The use of role-play has been covered by Underhill (1987), Hughes (1989), Seliger and Shohamy (1989). Another project (Painter, 1995) showed how learner-pairs requested testing using role-play after completing a unit of functionally-based language activity with computers. Role-plays, typically via an information gap, require participants to accomplish a task by exchanging information. The ability to do this can then indicate a level of proficiency in communicative performance. Underhill suggests functions as a basis of role-play situations. Concerning the test, Davies (1968) suggests that it should accurately reflect the underlying syllabus to satisfy his criteria for test content validity. Well documented functional outline sources are found in *The Threshold Level* (Van Ek, 1975) and Wilkins (1972, 1973, 1974, 1976). *The Threshold Level* was developed for the Council of Europe as an international standard level for language learning.

According to Bachman (1990), evidence to support the way a test is used can be grouped in three categories: content relevance, criterion relatedness, and meaningfulness of construct. Brown (1988) concurs with these categories. Morrow (1979) stresses the importance of content, construct, and predictive validity. Morrow values the use of 'performance tests' in the communicative context. He is concerned that performance be tested as an integrated occurrence, pointing out that testing discrete items demolishes this integrity.

Reliability and validity can be analysed through statistical studies. However, as Brown (1988) points out, of the two main categories of language test – norm-referenced and criterion-referenced – the latter is less accommodating to statistical study. A criterion-referenced test is typically used to measure what learners have achieved with reference to a criterion level which defines the ability objectives of a unit of study or of a course of study. It is therefore conceivable that if learners have succeded they could all score full marks. However, without a dispersion of scores, statistical methods have little use. As Bachman (1990) points out, reliability estimates depend on the amount of variability in test scores. For this reason, classical norm-referenced estimates of reliability are ineffective with criterion-referenced test scores.

Purpose of Study

The current purpose was to illustrate how the continuous assessment of oral communication performance was facilitated using multimedia computer software (Milward, 1993). Concurrently, it was considered necessary to establish reliability and validity for the testing. A parallel purpose was to explore the relationship between communicative performance opportunities exploited by learners and proficiency as reflected in performance tests. The data was accumulated over a period of one academic year. Learner evaluation of the program is included.

Outline of Learning and Assessment Procedure

During lesson time, learner-groups worked at their own pace and level, selected CD-ROM based video clips, predicted then practised communicative content, identified communicative aims, then employed them in self-created situations and requested assessment.

In Table 1.1 and 1.2, the two-level outline of course functions is displayed. For comparison, the six main function categories for the Threshold Level (Van Ek, 1975) are illustrated in Table 2, alongside the numbers of the present study units possessing corresponding functions.

The criterion-referenced performance tests, approximately three-minutes in duration, focused on the communicative aim and thus the functions of the unit. Twenty-five sets of role-cards outlined test situations and tasks, and embedded information gaps rendered communication meaningful. Successfully accomplishing the test task would signify achievement of the communicative aim and of a performance criteria. Each learner, in a pair of testees, received one of two role-cards. Testee pairs were synonymous with learner pairs and the task was acted out while the teacher listened and scored.

Table 1
Outline of Course Functions
Level One

Unit	Title	Functions
1-01	Introduction	introduce self & discuss itinerary/ purpose, describe possessions
1-02	Information	express/inquire about wants/preference, inquire about availability & request further information
1-03	Food	express/inquire about wants/preference, inquire about availability & request further information & choose
1-04	Home	identify relationship/ownership, express pleasure/liking
1-05	Inclusive	ask about/describe occupation & offer/request refreshment

Table 1.2
Outline of Course Functions
Level Two

Unit	Title	Functions
2-01	Arrival	asking/giving personal information
2-02	Information	finding satisfactory accommodation
2-03	Hotel	checking-in/giving information
2-04	Restaurant	complaining
2-05	Bar	discuss intentions/plans
2-06	Estate Agency	describing location
2-07	Apartment	talk about lifestyle/accommodation
2-08	Appliance Shop	discuss habits/routines
2-09	Home	talk about a sequence of past events
2-10	Telephoning	discuss who you know/remember/forget
2-11	Telephoning	discuss quantity/duration/distance
2-12	Post Office	ask/explain procedures
2-13	Restaurant	compare/evaluate things done/seen
2-14	Clothing Shop	talk about wants concerning undetermined object/quantity/ person/place
2-15	Pharmacy	explain/advise someone with a problem
2-16	Home	talk of things done/seen
2-17	Bookshop	compare things/people/places
2-18	Cafe	talk about intentions/wants/desire, periods of time past/future
2-19	Bank	talk about getting things done/things already done/ accomplished
2-20	School	interviewing/talking about past/what was happening at a given time

Table 2
Comparison of Threshold Functions and Course Functions

	Threshold Function	Course Function Level 1	Level 2
1	imparting and seeking factual information	1, 4	1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 16, 20
2	expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes	3, 5	10, 19
3	expressing and finding out emotional attitudes	2, 3, 4	2, 4, 5, 13, 14, 17, 18
4	expressing and finding out moral attitudes	—	4, 14, 17
5	getting things done	—	1, 12, 15, 19
6	socialising	1	—

The tests took the form of situations where learners played roles in particular settings concerning particular topics. For example, the situation in Level 2, Test 1 (Appendix A), put testees in the roles of: receptionist and patient, within the setting of: a hospital, and a topic of: seeking medical attention. To succeed the testees needed to perform the functions which had been practised, identified, and exponentially recreated during lesson time.

The scoring principle was indicated to learners in a procedure guide as follows:

1 communication was meaningful and grammatically correct: 2 points for each section
2 communication was meaningful but contained grammatical errors:1 point for each section
3 communication was meaningless: 0 points for each section

The scoring method attempted to reduce the number of items the assessor needed to keep track of during the test (Underhill, 1987). The method also attempted to reduce the need and influence of subjective judgment and help keep the functional target in focus. During a test the assessor would not be aware of the test status, i.e., first test or retest. Results were announced to individual testees at the end of the test.

Method

Subjects

Twenty-four mixed gender first year university learners enrolled alphabetically for one academic year with once a week class frequency totalling 26 classes (39 hours).

Instrument & Procedure

Reliability

Test-retest data, shown in Table 3.1, was examined for normal distribution, equal variance and linearity. Test-retest reliability (stability) was estimated using nine pairs of test scores from repeated tests and calculating a reliability coefficient with the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Intra-rater reliability would be indicated by the same correlation. Results appear in Table 3.2.

Table 3.1
Performance Test-Retest Data

Level	Test %	Retest %	Interval in weeks
1-1	80	80	2
1-2	60	70	1
1-3	80	70	15*
2-1	100	100	2
2-2	60	80	15*
2-2	80	90	15*
2-3	80	90	11*
2-3	80	90	11*
2-3	100	100	11*
m		80	90
SD		13.3	10.7

* = includes 10 week summer break

Table 3.2
Performance Test-Retest Correlation

Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y)	r	r^2
(X) Performance Test Scores & (Y) Retest scores:	0.88	0.77

$p < .05$, $df = 7$.

Validation

1. Content validity, (a) the ability domain was based on the functional course outline; (b) test method facets (the setting and procedure) were evaluated, and (c) the degree to which test task represented the ability domain was evaluated. This evaluation was facilitated by the specific focus and limited nature of tests.
2. Criterion validity implies correlation with a validated test, and is here subsumed under construct validity.
3. Construct validity is operationalized with construct as: the proficiency to perform in a defined language function area. Learners in the current study were additionally given two cloze tests, one in each semester. Performance test score and cloze score scattergrams were examined for normal distributions and linearity, The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used and the results are shown in Table 4.

Performance Quantity and Performance Score Correlation

The two interval scales of performance scores and performance quantity (i.e. how many tests learners sought to take) were analysed for correlation. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used and the results are shown in Table 5.

Evaluation

An evaluation by learners was conducted at the end of each semester. Relevant anonymously supplied information concerning testing is presented in the results.

Table 4
Performance Score and Cloze Score Correlation

Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y)	r	r^2
(X) Performance test scores and (Y) Cloze:	0.62	0.39

$p < .05$, $df = 22$.

Table 5
Performance Quantity, Performance Score, and Cloze Score Correlation

Dependent (X) & Independent variable (Y)	r	r^2
(X) Performance quantity and (Y) performance scores:	0.41	0.17
(X) Performance quantity and (Y) Cloze:	0.51	0.26

$p < .05$, $df = 22$.

Results

Test-retest Reliability

In the performance score test-retest correlation study (Table 3.1 & 3.2), the correlation coefficient $r = 0.88$, was significant at $p < .05$, $df = 7$. The coefficient of determination r squared = 0.77. The estimate for intra-rater reliability results from the same correlation coefficient, $r = 0.88$. This correlation gives a significant, high estimate of test-retest reliability. Likewise intra-rater reliability is high.

Validity

In the performance test score and cloze score correlation study (Table 4) the correlation coefficient $r = 0.62$, significant at $p < .05$, $df = 22$: A medium estimate of the correlation between two variables concerning construct validity.

Performance Quantity and Performance Score Correlation

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.41$ is low and indicates a weak but significant relationship between the two variables at $p < .05$, $df = 22$. The correlation coefficient $r = 0.51$ between performance quantity and cloze scores is fairly low and indicates a weak to medium, significant relationship

between the two variables at $p < .05$, $df = 22$. The coefficient of determination, r squared, estimates the extent to which the two variables overlap; 17% and 26%.

Evaluation

Learners were asked specifically whether measuring their oral English ability in the computer laboratory was effective. Learners answered on a scale of 1-5, low-high estimate. First semester the means were 3. 58, and second semester they were 3.79.

Conclusion

Results of test-retest reliability and intra-rater reliability studies present high estimates suggesting tests were reliable. The correlation of performance quantity and cloze score also offers a fair estimate of construct validity. Along with content validity this suggests reasonable confidence in test validity.

That 17% of performance score overlaps with performance quantity may be grounds for further investigation. The estimated closer relationship, of 26%, in overlap between performance quantity and cloze sustains the possibility that performance quantity does support underlying aspects of proficiency.

From the perspective of testing, with an average of eight tests taking place per lesson in addition to pedagogic assistance, learners sometimes had to compete for the chance to test, possibly dampening the positive effects of autonomy. Nevertheless, learners benefited from immediate knowledge of their assessment rather than having to wait until the end of the semester. Further research could include self testing by learners, thus avoiding any impediment caused by the test event.

Whether the tests, following soon after practice, could measure assimilated ability, needs further investigation. However, learners' perceptions of the effectiveness of measuring their ability increased. Moreover, the washback effect of testing was positive.

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Appendix A

Level 2 Test 1

Student A:
You are Jess Brown, a photographer living in New York.
You ate some food in a cheap restaurant last night but now you feel sick.
You have just arrived at the reception of Central Hospital.
You would like some medicine.
L2 01

Student B:
You are Jo Francis, a receptionist at Central Hospital.
When new patients arrive you must get their name, address, profession and age.
You should then tell them to sit down and wait for the doctor.
L2 01